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# TWEED'S GRAMMAR for COMMON SCHOOLS

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# GRAMMAR

## FOR COMMON SCHOOLS

BY

B. F. TWEED, A.M.

LATE SUPERVISOR IN THE BOSTON SCHOOLS

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# PREFACE.

In preparing this elementary grammar, it is assumed that pupils, before using it, have been trained in the primary schools and the lower classes of the grammar schools, to *use* language, both oral and written, in simple stories and descriptions, with considerable facility, and with general correctness.

In the lessons that precede the study of grammar, the attention of pupils has not been called, except incidentally, to the structure of sentences, but directed mainly to telling as plainly as they can what they know about the subject.

The teacher's part in these exercises is to aid the pupil in understanding what he is to talk or write about, and to suggest by questions, or otherwise, a natural arrangement.

Of course, the most common grammatical errors have been corrected by appeals to the ear, rather than by any rules of grammar. A few general directions have also been given as to the proper use of capitals, punctuation marks, etc. This, however, is not the study of grammar.

In the study of grammar, language becomes the object of study and investigation.

We take the sentence, — the only form of words expressing a complete thought, — and analyze it into its elements

according to the part that each performs in expressing the thought. These elements into which all discourse may be resolved, we call the *parts of speech.*

Then the relation of the elements in a sentence must be known in order to determine the meaning.

In many cases, the *arrangement* furnishes the only means of determining the relation of words and other elements of the sentence. In others, the relation is shown by inflections, auxiliaries, or connectives.

Hence, in addition to the elements, — arrangement, construction, inflection, and its substitutes are proper subjects of grammatical study.

In presenting these several departments of grammar, I have taken advantage of the pupils' knowledge of language acquired by *use;* in many cases simply formulating and naming principles practically learned in previous exercises.

It has been my endeavor, also, to develop the principle by illustration before assigning the technical name; and to exclude all technical names not founded on grammatical distinctions.

Our language has been called a "grammarless language." While this is not true, as it would imply that it has no principles of construction, it will be admitted, that, in parting with so many of the inflections of the synthetic languages on which our grammars have been modelled, it has become to a great extent logical.

The general grammatical facts remaining, I have tried to

state as simply as possible; and I believe they are sufficient to explain the construction of language as used by our best speakers and writers.

Idiomatic expressions, requiring a knowledge of the history of the language to explain, as well as difficult and doubtful constructions, are referred to in the Appendix, to be used at the discretion of the teacher. It is believed, however, that the pupil should be thoroughly grounded in the general principles of grammar, before being introduced to the unusual and difficult application of these principles.

A form of analysis sufficient to show the relation of subject, predicate, and modifiers, in simple, compound, and complex sentences, is given, without requiring a strict adherence to it. It may be modified at the pleasure of the teacher.

It is believed that the use of oral and written language in explaining the construction of sentences is by no means an unprofitable exercise.

This grammar has been prepared at the request and with the assistance of Mr. R. C. Metcalf, Supervisor of Language and Grammar in the Boston public schools.

Obligations to Mr. L. J. Campbell, for many valuable suggestions, are gratefully acknowledged.

B. F. T.

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# GRAMMAR FOR COMMON SCHOOLS.

## PART I.

### THE SENTENCE.

1. We express our thoughts in language, by using words in such a way as to make sense.

A spoken word is a simple sound or a combination of sounds, suggesting an idea.

A written or printed word is a letter or a combination of letters, suggesting an idea.

We can form ideas of material objects; as, a *stone*, a *flower*, *water*.

We can also form ideas of things which exist as objects of thought, though they cannot be perceived by the senses; as, *anger*, *goodness*, *love*, *joy*, *virtue*, *vice*.

When we have an idea of a thing, we commonly think about it with reference to some other idea to which it is related. If we have an idea of *birds*, and an idea of *flying*, we may combine the ideas in a thought, and express it by the statement, "Birds fly."

Two or more words are required to express a thought; and a thought expressed in words is called a **sentence.**

### KINDS OF SENTENCES.

**2.** When the sentence tells or declares something, it is a **declarative sentence;** as, *Birds fly. The dog runs. The girl laughs.*

When the sentence commands or entreats, it is an **imperative sentence;** as, *Come here. Make haste. Let me go. Do study your lesson.*

When the sentence asks a question, it is an **interrogative sentence;** as, *Do birds fly? Are you hungry? Can you read?*

When the sentence expresses emotion, or feeling, it is an **exclamatory sentence;** as, *What a pleasant day it is! How cold it is!*

#### EXERCISE.

***Tell whether each of the following sentences is declarative, imperative, interrogative, or exclamatory.***

(1) Man is mortal.
(2) Is man mortal?
(3) Iron is a metal.
(4) Is iron a metal?
(5) Study, boys.
(6) Run, Fido.
(7) Do boys like to skate?
(8) How sweetly it sings!
(9) A pretty bluebird flew to the apple-tree.

*Write five declarative, five interrogative, five imperative, and five exclamatory sentences.*

## SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

**3.** A sentence may be divided into two parts. One part names and frequently describes the person or thing spoken of, and is called the **subject.**

The other part tells something about the person or thing spoken of, and is called the **predicate.**

A sentence that contains but one subject and one predicate is a simple sentence; as, *A rickety old wagon carried us to the camp.*

### EXERCISE I.

***Tell the subject and predicate in each of the following sentences.***

(1) Two large black horses ran away with the coach.

(2) The carriage moved slowly up the hill.

(3) Charles wrote a letter to me.

### EXERCISE II.

***What is the subject in the first of the following sentences? Why? What is the predicate? Why? In the second? The third? The fourth? The fifth?***

(1) A clock stopped.

(2) An old clock stopped.

(3) An old clock stopped suddenly.

(4) An old clock that stood in a farmer's kitchen, stopped suddenly.

(5) An old clock that stood in a farmer's kitchen, stopped suddenly one summer morning.

**QUESTIONS.**

(1) What is the word *clock* used for in these sentences?

*Ans.* To *name* the thing spoken of.

(2) What is the word *stopped* used for?

*Ans.* To *declare* something about the clock.

(3) What is the word *old* used for?

*Ans.* To *describe* the clock with regard to age.

(4) What is the word *suddenly* used for?

*Ans.* To tell *how* it stopped.

(5) What does *in the farmer's kitchen* tell?

*Ans.* It tells *where* it stood.

(6) What does *one summer morning* tell?

*Ans.* It tells *when* it stopped.

**EXERCISE III.**

***Tell the subject and predicate of each of the following sentences.***

(1) The cold winds blew fiercely against the house on the hill.

(2) The children at the farmhouse sat on the front door-steps a long time in the evening.

(3) The beautiful snow falls gently from the sky.

(4) Men of sense act in a foolish manner sometimes.

**QUESTIONS.**

***In the sentences given above, what are the following words and groups of words used for?***

(1) winds; blew; cold; fiercely; against the house; on the hill.

(2) children; sat; at the farmhouse; on the front door-steps; a long time; in the evening.

(3) snow; falls; beautiful; gently; from the sky.

(4) men; act; of sense; in a foolish manner; sometimes.

### EXERCISE IV.

***Tell the subject and predicate of each of the following sentences.***

(1) Old Christmas, with the snowy hair and ruddy face, had done his duty that year in the noblest fashion.

(2) The complaints of the old man excited the indignation of the bystanders.

(3) Over the little shelf was a picture of Sarah's grandmother.

(4) A man with a bundle of straw for my bed led me through a dark, narrow passage, into a small room.

(5) The gray-haired old man talked much about Latin and Greek.

(6) New races of animals rise into existence with each succeeding month.

(7) The man of virtue and honor will be trusted.

(8) In every combination of circumstances, the man of faith discovers some gracious purpose.

(9) The man of long experience is a proper person to consult.

**Note to Teachers.** — "Questions" similar to those given in the preceding exercises assist in explaining the *use* of words, and lead to their division into the **parts of speech.**

## PARTS OF SPEECH.

### NOUNS, VERBS.

**4.** Words are divided, according to their use, into certain classes, called **parts of speech.**

Words used as names are called **nouns**; as, *man, child, stone, tree, house, bird, village, goodness, wisdom, duty, pleasure.*

Words that assert something of the subject of a sentence are called **verbs.** They may also be used to command, to entreat, to ask a question, or to express emotion; as, He *talks.* The child *walks.* Fishes *swim.* Trees *grow.* Do trees *grow?* How strong the lion *is!* *Study,* boys. *Do give* me something.

#### EXERCISE.

***Select the nouns and verbs in the following sentences.***

(1) The robin flew.

(2) Birds build nests on trees.

(3) John runs and jumps.

(4) The stream comes from the mountain.

(5) A cold wind piled the snow in heaps.

(6) Wisdom is better than wealth.

(7) Virtue is the strength and beauty of the soul.

(8) The man had a good horse, a good bridle and saddle, spurs, and a whip.

*Select nouns and verbs in Ex. IV., page 9.*

## SIMPLE AND ENLARGED SUBJECTS AND PREDICATES.

**5.** In every sentence there is a noun, or something that stands for a noun, which is called the **simple subject**; and a verb, which is called the **simple predicate**: as, *Lions roar. Birds sing.*

The simple subject, with other words that describe or limit it, is called the **enlarged subject.**

The simple predicate, with other words that describe or limit it, is called the **enlarged predicate.**

In the sentence, *Birds sing*, neither the subject nor the predicate is enlarged.

In the sentence, *The beautiful little birds sing their merry songs*, "birds" is the simple subject, and "sing" is the simple predicate. "The beautiful little birds" is the enlarged subject, and "sing their merry songs" is the enlarged predicate.

**Note.** — First find the simple subject and predicate, and then the enlarged subject and predicate. This is called **analyzing** the sentence.

### EXERCISE.

***Analyze the following sentences.***

(1) The boy strolled along the banks of the river.

(2) A great fire raged in London in 1666.

(3) The calm shade shall bring a kindred calm.

(4) The sweet breeze shall waft a balm to her sick heart.

(5) The tall ship glides gracefully over the blue water.

*Analyze sentences in Ex. IV., page 9.*

## PRONOUNS.

**6.** When a person speaks of himself, he does not use his name, but one of the following words that stand for his name, — *I, my, mine, me;* as, *I* asked *my* father to get a book for *me.* He gave *me mine.*

When a speaker joins himself with others, he uses one of these words, — *we, our, ours, us;* as, *We* asked *our* mates to play with *us.* The books are *ours.*

When one speaks to another person or to other persons, he does not commonly call them by name, but uses *you, your, yours;* as, I will give *you your* books. These books are *yours.*

**Note.** — In poetic style we use *thou, thy, thine, thee.*

### EXERCISE I.

***Select the words that stand for nouns in the following sentences.***

(1) John said, "The book mother gave me, I lent to my sister."

(2) William said, "When Mary and I went to school, we took our dinner with us."

(3) Boys, ask your mother if you may go.

(4) My son found your book in the street.

(5) William gave the book to me, and I now give it to you.

(6) Thou art the man; the fault is thine.

In speaking of a male, we may use *he*, *his*, *him*, in place of the noun; as, The boy said *he* was studying *his* lesson when the teacher spoke to *him*.

In speaking of a female, we may use *she*, *her*, *hers*, in place of the noun; as, Sarah said *she* was studying *her* lesson when the teacher spoke to *her*. The dolls were *hers*.

In speaking of something neither male nor female, we may use *it* or *its* in place of the noun; as, The house is large, and *its* sunny rooms make *it* pleasant.

**EXERCISE II.**

***Select the words that stand for nouns in the following sentences.***

(1) John asked his brother if he would lend him his sled.

(2) The lady told her daughter that she might go with her.

(3) The boy picked up his book, and put it in its place.

---

In speaking of more than one male, female, or thing without sex, we may use *they*, *their*, *theirs*, *them*, in the place of the noun; as,

The gentlemen said, as *they* left the room, *they* would take *their* hats with *them*.

The ladies said *they* would take *their* children with *them*.

The houses were pleasant, with *their* large rooms and rich furniture in *them.*

These words, *I, my, mine, me, we, our, ours, us, you, your, yours, ye, thou, thy, thine, thee, he, his, him, she, her, hers, it, its, they, their, theirs, them,* are called **pronouns,** because they perform the office of nouns.

They are called **personal pronouns,** because they have different forms to represent the **person speaking,** the **person spoken to,** and the **person or thing spoken of.**

A noun or pronoun representing the *person speaking* is in the **first person;** the *person spoken to,* in the **second person;** and the *person or thing spoken of,* in the **third person.**

### EXERCISE III.

***Select the personal pronouns in the following sentences, and tell whether they are in the first, second, or third person.***

(1) I saw the boy, and called him to me.

(2) Joseph has some apples, and will give them to you.

(3) Henry's sisters were here with him.

(4) Annie gave a ring to her sister, and she wore it constantly.

(5) George bought the book, but has given it to his brother.

(6) This knife is mine, but you may take it.

(7) They asked me to help them.

(8) When you are ready to recite your lesson, you may come to me, and I will hear you.

(9) Your pencil is better than mine : please lend it to me.

(10) "Thy triumph ceased awhile,
And Hope, thy sister, ceased with thee to smile."

## ADJECTIVES.

### EXERCISE I.

***7. Tell what the italicized words in the following sentences are used for.***

(1) He is an *old* man.

(2) He lives in a *white* house.

(3) The city is supplied with *pure* water.

(4) *Ten* men were elected to serve on the committee.

(5) The ocean seems *boundless*.

A word used to describe or limit the meaning of a noun or pronoun is called an **adjective.**

**Note.** — To limit does not necessarily signify to narrow the meaning, but to determine its extent. The adjective *old* in the sentence, "He is an old man," *describes* the man with regard to age, or *limits* the man spoken of, to a certain class. So with *white*, *pure*, *ten*, and *boundless*.

### EXERCISE II.

***Analyze these sentences, and select the nouns, verbs, pronouns, and adjectives.***

(1) The pupil deserves great praise for his industry.

(2) Diligent pupils receive their reward.

(3) The sweet breeze shakes the green leaves.

(4) Do you hear the merry bells peal forth a joyous welcome?

*Write ten sentences, each containing an adjective.*

## ARTICLES.

**8.** The words, *a*, *an*, and *the* are a kind of adjectives. They are called **articles.**

*A* or *an* is called the **indefinite article.**

*The* is called the **definite article.**

*A* is used before words beginning with a consonant sound; as, *a bird, a great man, a unit, such a one.*

**Note.** — *Unit* begins with the sound of *y* (consonant). *One* begins with the sound of *w* (consonant).

*An* is used before words beginning with a vowel sound; as, *an orange, an apple, an inkstand.*

### EXERCISE.

***In each of the following sentences, substitute the indefinite article for the definite.***

(1) James read the lesson from the history.

(2) After the hour of toil, we like the time for rest.

(3) William has learned the useful art.

(4) The umpire is chosen for the game.

(5) The boy found the acorn under the oak.

(6) The honest man will be trusted.

(7) The young man left, the hour before I did.

(8) The pupil recited the lesson.

## ADVERBS.

### EXERCISE I.

**9.** ***Tell what the italicized words are used for in the following sentences.***

(1) The man talked *foolishly.*
(2) The dog ran *here* and *there.*
(3) The judge decided *carefully.*
(4) The clock strikes *hourly.*
(5) You must not look *down.*
(6) John is a *very* good boy.
(7) The girl behaves *tolerably* well.

A word used to limit the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, is called an **adverb.**

### EXERCISE II.

***Analyze the following sentences, and select the nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs.***

(1) A wise man acts wisely.
(2) A very wise man acts very wisely.
(3) Beauty is less desirable than goodness.
(4) How impatiently the proud ship tosses!
(5) Sometimes boys behave foolishly.
(6) The horse ran swiftly.
(7) Rich men should give liberally.
(8) Mother will soon be here.
(9) The boy behaves very well.

*Write ten sentences, each containing an adverb.*

## PHRASES.

**10.** A prudent man is respected.

A man *of prudence* is respected.

These sentences express the same thought.

In the first sentence, *man* is described or limited by the adjective *prudent.*

In the second sentence, the words *of prudence,* taken together, perform the office of the adjective *prudent.*

The sentence was written properly.

The sentence was written *in a proper manner.*

These sentences express the same thought.

In the first sentence, *was written* is limited by the adverb *properly.*

In the second sentence, the words *in a proper manner* perform the office of the adverb *properly.*

The sight of the sun is pleasant.

*To see* the sun is pleasant.

These sentences express the same thought.

In the first sentence, the noun *sight* is the simple subject.

In the second sentence, *to see* is the simple subject, performing the office of the noun *sight.*

Two or more words performing the office of one of the *parts of speech,* and not having a subject and

predicate, are called a **phrase**; as, a book *of poetry*, propelled *by steam*.

A phrase that performs the office of an adjective is an **adjective phrase**; one that performs the office of an adverb is an **adverbial phrase**; and one that performs the office of a noun is a **noun phrase.**

### PREPOSITIONS.

**11.** The word that connects a phrase of which it is a part, to the word it limits, is called a **preposition**; as, men *of* sense; the house *across* the street; the trees *around* the house.

#### EXERCISE.

***Select the nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and phrases in the following sentences.***

(1) A loud noise from the street was heard by the inmates.

(2) Hope is the balm of life.

(3) Attention to business will secure us against want.

(4) The man went from Boston to New York.

(5) Washington had served in the army before the war of the Revolution.

(6) The boy went with his father.

(7) He cannot be happy without work.

(8) Up yonder hill the village murmur rose.

(9) The children roamed about the fields.

(10) I sat under the spreading branches.

The following words are sometimes used as prepositions: *past* for *by; excepting* for *except; regarding, respecting, touching*, for *concerning* or *about; along, off, till, until.*

**EXERCISE.**

***Select the adjective, the adverbial, and the noun phrases, in the following sentences.***

(1) Men of sense act with caution.
(2) The men acted with calmness and with wisdom.
(3) To err is human. To forgive is divine.
(4) To suffer wrong is better than to do wrong.
(5) A man of truth will be believed.
(6) The pupils listened with attention.
(7) Days of happiness pass with rapidity.
(8) A lecture on history will be given.
(9) I saw a boy in the street.
(10) The man was in this room.
(11) I saw him at that time.
(12) At what time did he leave? *

## CONJUNCTIONS.

**12.** George went away. William remained at home.

These two sentences may be united so as to form but one: thus, —

George went away, *and* William remained at home.
George went away, *but* William remained at home.
George went away, *though* William remained at home.

* *Select phrases in Exs. III. and IV., pages 8 and 9, and from the reading-book.*

Words used to connect sentences are called **conjunctions.** (*See notes under Rule 14, p. 61.*)

In uniting sentences by conjunctions, we need not repeat what is alike in each.

**EXERCISE.**

***Unite the following sentences by* and *or* but, *and do not repeat what is alike in each.***

(1) Washington was a great man. Washington was a good man.

(2) A prudent man will commonly succeed. An industrious man will commonly succeed.

(3) The young lady plays the piano. The young lady cannot sing.

(4) I went to church. It was very cold.

(5) The cargo was lost. The sailors reached the shore.

## COMPOUND SENTENCES.

Sentences formed by combining independent statements, each of which makes sense when standing alone, are called **compound sentences.**

The conjunctions that connect such statements are called **co-ordinate conjunctions.**

**EXERCISE.**

***Form a compound sentence, by uniting each of the following couplets, using one or more of these co-ordinate conjunctions:*** and, but, or, nor.

(1) Jane abused her books. Mary took good care of hers.

(2) The river was wide. The current was strong.

(3) You must go to work. Your family will starve.

(4) I do not fear him. I do not avoid him.

*Write five compound sentences.*

## RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

**13.** I saw a man. The man was going to New York.

These sentences may be united thus: —

I saw a man *who* was going to New York.

In this sentence, *who* performs the office of a pronoun and a conjunction. It means: I saw a man, *and he* was going to New York.

James lost a knife. John found the knife.

These sentences may be united by *which;* as, James lost a knife, *which* John found. It means: James lost a knife, *and* John found *it.*

This is the man. He came to our house.

We may unite these two sentences by *that;* as, This is the man *that* came to our house.

I saw the boy. His name was John.

These sentences may be united by *whose;* as, I saw the boy *whose* name was John.

He is the merchant. We bought goods of him.

These sentences may be united by *whom;* as, He is the merchant of *whom* we bought goods.

These words, *who, whose, whom, which, that,* when used in this way, are called **relative pronouns.**

The noun or pronoun that a relative pronoun stands for, or relates to, is called its **antecedent,** because it *goes before* the relative pronoun.

### EXERCISE.

***Unite each couplet by a relative pronoun, and tell its antecedent.***

(1) We lived in a house. The house has been sold.

(2) You sent for a book. I will lend you the book.

(3) The man is my friend. You saw him at my house.

(4) We came in a carriage. The carriage went directly back.

(5) Here is a boy. I borrowed his sled.

*Write five sentences, using a relative pronoun in each.*

### CLAUSES.

A man who tells the truth will be believed.

In this sentence, *who tells the truth* performs the office of the adjective *truthful.*

I saw him when he was here.

*When he was here* performs the office of the adverb *then.*

That you know better, is certain.

*That you know better* performs the office of a noun, *the fact.*

A subordinate statement that performs the office of an adjective, an adverb, or a noun, is called a **clause.**

A clause that performs the office of an adjective is an **adjective clause;** one that performs the office of an adverb is an **adverbial clause;** and one that performs the office of a noun is a **noun clause.**

A clause may be connected with the word on which it depends, by a relative pronoun or a subordinate conjunction; as, *who, which, that, when, where, if, unless,* etc.

### COMPLEX SENTENCES.

A sentence containing but one independent statement, and one or more clauses, is a **complex sentence.**

#### EXERCISE.

***Select the clauses in the following sentences, and tell whether they are adjective, adverbial, or noun clauses.***

(1) The pupil that studies will learn.

(2) The horse ran away when his owner left him.

(3) I know that he told the truth.

(4) When I saw the man, I knew him.

(5) That I should tell the truth, I learned from my mother.

(6) Every child knows when vacation begins.

*Write five complex sentences.*

## SUMMARY OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

**The parts of speech** include all the words that can be used in sentences.

A word used as a name is a *noun.*

A word used instead of a noun is a *pronoun.*

A word used to assert is a *verb.*

A word used to describe or limit a noun or pronoun is an *adjective.*

A word used to describe or limit a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, is an *adverb.*

A word placed before a limiting word to connect it with the word it limits is a *preposition.*

A word used to connect sentences is a *conjunction.*

A word used to imply emotion, without asserting it, is an *interjection;* as,

> Alas! the remedy came too late.
> Oh for a lodge in some vast wilderness!

**The same word may perform the office of different parts of speech.**

(1) It is a *calm* day.

(2) There was a great *calm.*

(3) *Calm* yourself.

In the first sentence, "calm" is an *adjective;* in the second, it is a *noun;* and in the third, it is a *verb.*

(1) Thou hast beset me *before* and behind.

(2) The man was *before* the fire.

(3) I saw the man *before* he saw me.

In the first sentence, "before" is an *adverb;* in the second, a *preposition;* and in the third, a *conjunction* or a *conjunctive adverb.*

**EXERCISE.**

***Make sentences in which the following words are used as different parts of speech.***

*Iron, water, copper, snow, rain, work, before, after, up, down.*

---

| Co-ordinate Conjunctions. | |
|---|---|
| and, | yet, |
| or, | however, |
| nor, | still, |
| but, | nevertheless. |

**Note.** — To give emphasis, nearly all these are sometimes preceded by corresponding conjunctions; as,

| |
|---|
| both — and, |
| either — or, |
| neither — nor, |
| though — yet, |
| whether — or. |

| Subordinate Conjunctions. | |
|---|---|
| if, | lest, |
| unless, | than, |
| though, | since, |
| that, | because. |

**Note.** — The following may be called subordinate conjunctions, or conjunctive adverbs.

| | |
|---|---|
| when, | how, |
| where, | why, |
| while, | until, |
| before, | ere, |
| after, | till. |

**Note.** — *How, where, when, why, while,* used interrogatively, are adverbs.

# PART II.

## CLASSES OF NOUNS.

The name of an individual person or thing is a **proper noun**; as, *Charles, Mary, Boston, London.*

Proper nouns, and words derived from them, should begin with a capital letter; as, *England, English, Englishman, America, American, Americans.*

A name that may be applied to each individual of a class is a **common noun**; as, *boy, girl, city, town, river, mountain.*

A common noun used to denote a single object consisting of many individuals is called a **collective noun**; as, *army, senate, jury, school.*

**Note.** — An army consists of many soldiers; a senate, of senators; a jury, of jurors; a school, of pupils.

### EXERCISE.

***Select the* proper *nouns, and words derived from them, the* common *nouns, and the* collective *nouns, in the following sentences.***

(1) Boston is a large city.
(2) The English nation is powerful.
(3) Americans are proud of their country.
(4) The jury were divided.
(5) The senate was unanimous.

### PERSON.

A noun used as the name of the *speaker* is in the **first person**; when used as the name of the person *spoken to*, it is in the **second person**; and when used as the name of the person or thing *spoken of*, it is in the **third person.**

**Note.** — There is no change in the *form* of the noun to show its person; but different personal pronouns are required to represent the *speaker*, the person *spoken to*, and the person or thing *spoken of*: as, —

*I* (the speaker) was looking for *my* hat. Anna, *you* may recite *your* lesson. Virtue is *its* own reward. This is *my* hat. That is *yours*. *I* gave the books to *them*.

### NUMBER.

A noun is commonly changed in form when it is used to denote more than one object: as, *boy, boys; girl, girls; man, men; house, houses; veto, vetoes.*

A noun that denotes one object is in the **singular number**; a noun that denotes more than one is in the **plural number.**

The regular plural is formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular: as, *river, rivers; tree, trees; box, boxes; church, churches.*

Some nouns form their plurals by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves*; as, *wolf, wolves; wife, wives; thief, thieves.*

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant form their plurals by changing *y* into *ies*; as, *lady, ladies; city, cities; territory, territories.*

Some nouns form their plural by changing the vowel or vowels of the singular; as, *man, men; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; foot, feet.*

Some nouns are the same in both numbers; as, *deer, sheep, swine, series, species.*

Nouns that are distinguished by quantity instead of number have no plural; as, *iron, gold, silver, laziness, flour, anger.*

Some nouns have no singular; as, *riches, alms, measles, bellows, scissors, pincers.*

**EXERCISE.**

***Substitute the plural for the singular, and the singular for the plural, of each noun in the following sentences; and make such other changes as the sense requires.***

(1) The pupil lost his book.
(2) The star is shining upon the hill and valley.
(3) The musician played on a fife.
(4) They wished to buy a loaf of bread.
(5) The bonnet suited the lady.
(6) The men rode in a coach.
(7) The goose hissed at the children.
(8) I read the motto of the hero.
(9) We were reading the story about the turkey.

(10) The men found knives and forks on the tables.

(11) I will give you a key to the story of the fairy.

(12) They told the griefs and sorrows of their lives.

(13) The towns were burned by Tories.

*See table page 69.*

## GENDER.

The distinction of male and female is called *sex*.

The name of a male is of the **masculine gender**; as, *man, boy, father.*

The name of a female is of the **feminine gender**; as, *woman, girl, mother.*

The name of an object neither male nor female is of the **neuter gender**; as, *table, book, tree.*

The distinction of sex is expressed:

(1) By different words; as, *boy, girl; husband, wife; uncle, aunt; man, woman.*

(2) By words prefixed; as, *man-servant, maid-servant; male child, female child; he-goat, she-goat.*

(3) By difference of termination; as, *abbot, abbess; emperor, empress; hero, heroine; widower, widow; administrator, administratrix.*

**Note.** – Inanimate objects spoken of as having life are said to be *personified*, and are represented by masculine or feminine pronouns.

### EXERCISE.

***In each of the following sentences, change the italicized noun from the masculine to the feminine form, or from feminine to masculine, with other changes to correspond.***

(1) The *man* was earnest in the cause of temperance.

(2) The *lady* was away from home.

(3) The judge appointed an *administratrix* upon the estate.

(4) The *boy* came to thank his *host.*

(5) The flock had been in the charge of a *shepherdess.*

(6) The children were fond of their *brother.*

(7) These are nuptial gifts for the *bridegroom.*

(8) Who was the *heroine* of the story?

(9) A lonely *widower* sat by his fireside.

(10) Who is the *heiress* to the large estate?

*See table, page 70.*

## CASE.

*Case* is a term used to denote the relation which a noun or pronoun sustains to some other word.

There are *three* cases, — the **nominative,** the **possessive,** and the **objective.**

The noun has but one change (the possessive) to indicate case. But some of the personal pronouns, and one of the relative pronouns, have *three forms* to show the relations of *subject, object,* and *ownership* or *possession.*

**Note.** — In the sentence, "William sees James," we know that William is the subject, simply by its position. If the same words were arranged thus, "James sees William," "James" would be the subject.

But in the sentence, "He sees him," the case of the pronouns is shown by their form. If it were written, "Him he sees," we should know that "he" is the subject, from its form.

The possessive case singular is formed by adding an apostrophe and *s* to the noun; as, *Mary's, John's, James's.*

When the plural ends in *s*, the apostrophe only is added; as, *boys'*. When the plural does not end in *s*, the possessive is formed by adding the apostrophe and *s*, as in the singular; as, *men's.*

**POSSESSIVE CASE.**

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Singular.* | Boy's, | Man's, | Lady's, | Hero's, |
| *Plural.* | Boys', | Men's, | Ladies', | Heroes'. |

Nouns ending in *ss* or *nce*, generally take the apostrophe only; as, "for *conscience*' sake," "for *goodness*' sake."

**EXERCISE.**

***Write the following sentences, putting the italicized nouns in the possessive case.***

(1) The story was taken from the Fables of *Æsop.*
(2) He is freed from the troubles of *life.*
(3) This sled belongs to my *brother.*
(4) Pity the sorrows of a poor old *man.*
(5) The ways of *wisdom* are pleasantness.
(6) I borrowed a book belonging to *Anna.*
(7) The point of an *arrow* is sharp.
(8) The points of the *arrows* were broken.
(9) The shawl of the *lady* was handsome.
(10) The bonnets of the *ladies* were gay

*For more exercises, see page 116.*

# PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

## DECLENSION.

### FIRST PERSON.

| | *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|---|
| *Nominative.* | I. | We. |
| *Possessive.* | My *or* mine. | Our *or* ours. |
| *Objective.* | Me. | Us. |

### SECOND PERSON.

#### Common Style.

| | *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|---|
| *Nominative.* | You. | You. |
| *Possessive.* | Your *or* yours, | Your *or* yours. |
| *Objective.* | You. | You. |

#### Poetic Style.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *Nominative.* | Thou. | Ye. |
| *Possessive.* | Thy *or* thine. | Your *or* yours. |
| *Objective.* | Thee. | You. |

### THIRD PERSON (SINGULAR).

| | *Masculine.* | *Feminine.* | *Neuter.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Nominative.* | He. | She. | It. |
| *Possessive.* | His. | Her *or* hers. | Its. |
| *Objective.* | Him. | Her. | It. |

### THIRD PERSON (PLURAL) ALL GENDERS.

| | |
|---|---|
| *Nominative.* | They, |
| *Possessive.* | Their *or* theirs. |
| *Objective.* | Them. |

**EXERCISE.**

***Substitute a personal pronoun for each italicized word, and tell what person, number, and case it is.***

(1) *Mary* read in *Mary's* book.

(2) *John's* sled is broken.

(3) The *man* acquired his property honestly.

(4) *Boys* are sometimes careless.

(5) I have noticed *carelessness* in *boys*.

(6) This is the *man* whom I saw.

(7) I gave the *kite* to *Robert*.

(8) Then the *kite* was *Robert's*.

(9) The *apples* were ripe.

(10) The *boys* went to gather the *apples*.

*For more exercises, see page 116.*

## COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

*Myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, thyself, himself, herself, itself, themselves,* are called **compound personal pronouns,** and are used only in the nominative and objective cases; as, *I myself did it. You wrong yourself. We cannot see ourselves.*

**EXERCISE.**

***Supply the proper compound personal pronoun in each of the following sentences.***

(1) I saw the man ——.

(2) We —— are to blame.

(3) Thou —— mayst see.

(4) I tell you that which you —— do know.

*For more exercises, see page 117.*

## RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

A relative pronoun performs the office of a pronoun and a subordinate conjunction. It is used only in clauses of complex sentences. As a pronoun, it represents a noun or pronoun, called its *antecedent.* As a subordinate conjunction, it connects the clause in which it stands, with its antecedent. It is not varied in form on account of person and number.

*Who* and *which* are thus declined: —

| | *Singular and Plural.* | *Singular and Plural.* |
|---|---|---|
| *Nominative.* | who, | which, |
| *Possessive.* | whose, | whose, |
| *Objective.* | whom. | which. |

*That* is indeclinable.

*Who* is applied to persons; as, *This is the boy who spoke to me.*

*Which* is applied to inferior animals or to things without life; as, *I paid for the goods which were sent me. The carriage which brought us has returned.*

*That* is applied both to persons and things; as, *The man that was here has gone. The house that was burned was insured.*

### EXERCISE.

***Supply the proper relative pronoun in each of the following sentences.***

(1) The carriage —— we came in has returned.

(2) The man —— you saw was my friend.

(3) The book —— I borrowed has been returned.

(4) I will gladly loan you the book —— you sent for.

(5) The gentlemen —— company we expected, did not come.

(6) The lady —— spoke to me is my sister.

*For more exercises, see page 117.*

## COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

*What, whatever, whoever, whichever,* or *whatsoever, whosoever, whichsoever,* connect clauses like relative pronouns, but are used only when the antecedent is omitted; as, *I know what is wanted. Whosoever will, may come.*

These words may be regarded as implying both the antecedent and the relative.

### EXERCISE.

***Substitute a compound relative for the italicized words in the following sentences.***

(1) You have done *that which* you should be sorry for.

(2) *Those things which* cannot be prevented must be borne patiently.

(3) *He who* acts uprightly will be respected.

(4) *The things which* I brought home, I gave to my brother.

(5) This is exactly *the thing that* was wanted.

(6) We can have *that which* we prefer.

(7) They stood mourning for *the things which* they had lost.

(8) *The man who* injures another is his own foe.

*For more exercises, see page 118.*

## INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

*Who, which,* and *what,* when used in asking questions, are called **interrogative pronouns**; as, *Who is this? Which is the house? What do you want?*

*Which* and *what* are also used as **interrogative adjectives**; as, *Which way did he go? What book have you been reading? Whose hat is this?*

### EXERCISE.

***Supply the proper interrogative pronouns or adjectives in these sentences.***

(1) — spoke to you?
(2) — did he say?
(3) — did you speak?
(4) — hat is this?
(5) — way did he go?
(6) — book will you take?
(7) — slate have you?
(8) — will you take?
(9) — did you give it?
(10) — was it?
(11) — went with you?
(12) — horse is that?
(13) — did you buy him?
(14) — did you sell him?
(15) — pear do you choose?
(16) — will you give for it?
(17) — are you speaking of?
(18) — did you see?
(19) — did you speak to?
(20) — house is it?

# VERBS.

## MODE.

The manner in which a verb is used is called its **mode.**

There are four modes, — the **indicative,** the **potential,** the **subjunctive,** and the **imperative.**

The **indicative** mode is used to declare the *act* expressed by the verb; as, *I will go. The boy runs.*

The **potential** mode is used to express possibility, liberty, power, will, obligation, or necessity, by the use of *may, can, must, might, could, would,* or *should;* as, *I may go. The boy may leave the room. He can go. He might go. He could go. He should go. He would go. He must go.*

The **subjunctive** mode is used in a clause (or subjoined statement), to express a condition; as, I would go *if I were you.*

**Note.** — Bain says, "The verb *be* has a peculiar inflection to express contingency or conditionality; it is the only real conditional or subjunctive mode [form] in English, and is in the past tense."

The present subjunctive, *if I be, if you be, if he be,* seems to be an elliptical form for *if I should be,* etc. So is *if he love,* and the like. (See Bain's "Higher English Grammar," p. 98.)

The elliptical form (*if I be, if it rain*), although formerly in frequent use, is now *commonly* used only in reference to *future* time.

Whenever the condition refers to *present* time, the present indicative form should be used; as, "If James *is* sick (now), we must send for a doctor."

The **imperative** mode is used to express a command or entreaty; as, *Boys, study your lessons. Give us this day our daily bread.*

**EXERCISE.**

***Tell the mode of the italicized verbs in the following sentences, and supply what is omitted in the elliptical forms.***

(1) Napoleon I. *died* at St. Helena.

(2) *Give* us this day our daily bread.

(3) If it *be* fair to-morrow, I *shall go.*

(4) *Go! get* you gone.

(5) Thou *shalt* not *steal.*

(6) *Let* us, then, be up and doing.

(7) It *is* fair weather now, but it *may rain* to-morrow.

(8) If it *rain,* I *shall* not *go.*

(9) The humblest painter, *let* him be ever so poor, *thinks* he *is* an artist.

(10) Whoever *thinks* a faultless piece to see,

(11) *Thinks* what ne'er *was,* nor *is,* nor e'er *shall be.*

## THE INFINITIVE.

An infinitive is a form of the verb that merely *names* its action.

It performs the office of a noun, and may be called a **verbal noun.**

Every verb has two infinitives. One is the simple form of the verb; as, *speak, go, hear.*

The simple form is used after *may, shall, will,* etc., in forming the tenses of verbs.

The preposition *to* is often placed before the simple infinitive, making a phrase; as, (*to*) *see,* (*to*) *believe.*

The other form of the infinitive is the same as that of the imperfect participle; as, *seeing is believing.* This is called the infinitive in *ing.*

Infinitives, though used as nouns, may be limited like the verbs from which they are derived.

In the sentence, *I saw him go,* "go" is a **simple infinitive.** In, *I told him to go,* "to go" is an **infinitive phrase.**

In, *Going is as easy as standing,* "going" and "standing" are **infinitives in** *ing.*

**Note.** — Bain, in his "Higher English Grammar," p. 97, says that, "When the two forms of the infinitive have the sense of purpose or intention, they are called gerunds; as, *I come to write: ready for sailing: a house to let.*"

In old English, the preposition *for* was sometimes placed before the infinitive phrase (or gerund); as, *What went ye out for to see?* (See Appendix.)

## PARTICIPLES.

A participle is a form of the verb that performs the office of an adjective, and may be called a **verbal adjective.**

There are two participles, — the **imperfect** and the **perfect.** They have no tense, but simply express incomplete or complete action.

The *imperfect participle* always ends in *ing*, having the same form as the infinitive in *ing*.

The *perfect participle* commonly ends in *d*, *t*, or *n*.

| *Imperfect Participle.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|
| loving, | loved, |
| seeing, | seen, |
| teaching. | taught. |

By prefixing *having* to the perfect participle, we form a **compound perfect participle**; as, *having loved, having seen, having taught.*

Participles, though used as adjectives, may be limited like the verbs from which they are derived.

*For exercises, see page 119.*

### TENSE.

The verb asserts an action as present, past, or future; and also as complete or incomplete. This gives rise to six tenses, — present, present perfect, past, past perfect, future, future perfect.

The **present tense** indicates present time, and incomplete action, as, *I write;* or habitual and still continuing action, as, *I am writing.*

The **past tense** indicates past time, and incomplete action; as, *I wrote, I was writing.*

The **present perfect tense** indicates an action completed at the present time; as, *I have written, I have been writing.*

The **past perfect tense** indicates an action completed at some past time; as, *I had written, I had been writing.*

The **future tense** indicates future time and incomplete action; as, *I shall write, I shall be writing.*

The **future perfect tense** indicates an action to be completed at some future time; as, *I shall have written, I shall have been writing.*

### EXERCISE I.

***Tell the tense of the italicized verbs in these sentences.***

(1) William *studies* his lessons every day. He *is studying* now.

(2) William *studied* his lessons yesterday. He *was studying* when I saw him.

(3) William *has studied* his lessons to-day. He *has been studying* all day.

(4) William *had studied* his lessons before he came to school.

(5) William *had been studying* his lessons before I met him.

(6) William *will study* to-morrow. William *will be studying* to-morrow.

(7) William *will have studied* before he recites.

(8) William *will have been studying* an hour before recitation.

### EXERCISE II.

***Supply the proper tense of the verb* read *in each of the following sentences.***

(1) The boy —— now. He —— at the present time.

(2) The boy —— to-morrow. He —— to-morrow.

(3) The boy —— yesterday. He —— yesterday.

(4) The boy —— before I saw him. He —— before I saw him.

(5) The boy —— before this time. He —— till the present time.

(6) The boy —— before to-morrow morning. He —— before to-morrow morning.

## CLASSES OF VERBS.

Verbs are divided with regard to form, into two classes, — **regular** and **irregular.**

A **regular verb** forms its past tense of the indicative mode, and its perfect participle, by adding *ed* to the simple form; or *d* only, when the verb ends in *e:* as,

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|
| play, | played, | played, |
| love. | loved. | loved. |

Verbs that do not form their past tense and perfect participle by adding *ed*, or *d* when the verb ends in *e*, are **irregular**; as,

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|
| see, | saw, | seen. |
| teach, | taught, | taught. |
| forget, | forgot, | forgotten *or* forgot. |

A verb which can be used in but part of the modes and tenses is a **defective verb**; as, *quoth, ought.*

*See table, page 72 to 78.*

### TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE.

A verb is called **transitive** when it requires a noun or pronoun as the direct object of its action; as, *James sees William* (or *him.*)

A verb is called **intransitive** when it does not require a noun or pronoun in the objective case; as, *James runs.*

**Note.** — Most verbs may be used transitively or intransitively; as, *The man sees the boy* (or *him*). Here, *sees* is transitive. But in the sentence, *The man sees clearly* (meaning he is not blind), *sees* is intransitive.

### ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE.

*Transitive* verbs may be used in two ways, to express the same thought, called the **active** and **passive voice.**

The *active voice* represents the **subject** as the **actor**; as, *James sees William.*

The *passive voice* represents the **subject** as the **person or thing acted upon**; as, *William is seen by James.*

**EXERCISE.**

***Change the active to the passive voice in these sentences.***

(1) My father built a house.
(2) The boy broke the window.
(3) The stabler lets horses.
(4) The lady rang the bell.
(5) The legislature makes laws.
(6) Lee and Shepard published the book.
(7) My father told me the story.
(8) I heard a loud noise.

*For more exercises, see pages 120, 121.*

## AUXILIARY VERBS.

The different modes and tenses are formed (with one exception) by the help of one of these words: *do, does, did, have, has, had, shall, will, may, can, must, might, could, would, should.*

They are called **auxiliary verbs.**

## CONJUGATION.

A connected view of a verb in its several modes and tenses is called its **conjugation.**

Conjugation of the verb *love* in the active voice:—

**PRINCIPAL PARTS.**

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|
| love. | loved. | loved. |

INDICATIVE MODE.

*Present* { love, *or* do love. / loves, *or* does love, when the subject is third person singular.

*Past*, loved, *or* did love.

In poetic style, *loveth* or *doth love* is used with a subject of the third person singular, present, and *hath* in the present perfect.

*Present perfect* { have loved. / has loved, when the subject is third person singular.

*Past Perfect*, had loved.

*Future*, shall *or* will love.

*Future perfect*, shall *or* will have loved.

In *poetic style*, the verb or its auxiliary is varied in form, when the subject is in the second person singular; as,

*Present*, lovest, *or* dost love.

*Past*, lovedst, *or* didst love.

*Present perfect*, hast loved.

*Past perfect*, hadst loved.

*Future*, shalt *or* wilt love.

*Future perfect*, shalt *or* wilt have loved.

POTENTIAL MODE.

*Present*, may, can, must } love.
*Past*,[1] might, could, would, should }

[1] This is usually called the *past* tense, because *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*, are inflections of *may*, *can*, *will*, and *shall*. But they have now lost their *past* signification, and are used with the simple form of the verb, in expressing present or future time.

*Present perfect*, may, can, must *have*
*Past perfect*, might, could, would, should *have* } loved.

In *poetic style*, the auxiliaries of the verb are varied in form, with a subject in the second person singular.

*Present*, mayst, canst,
*Past*, mightst, couldst, wouldst, shouldst } love.
*Present perfect*, mayst, canst, *have*
*Past perfect*, mightst, couldst, wouldst, shouldst, *have* } loved.

By reference to the conjugation of the verb *love*, it will be seen that the simple form of the present indicative is the same as the infinitive without the sign *to;* as, *I love. I write.* In the third person singular, present indicative, *s* is added to the simple form.

In declarative sentences the past indicative is formed by inflecting or changing the simple form; as, *Present*, I love. *Past*, I loved. *Present*, I write. *Past*, I wrote.

In declarative sentences the auxiliaries *do* (*does, did*), *shall, will, may, can, must, might, could, would, should*, are only used immediately before the simple form of the verb; as, *I do go. You shall stay. He must write*, etc.

In declarative sentences the auxilary *have* (*has, had*) is only used immediately before the perfect participle; as, *I have written. He has gone. You may have recited.*

The auxiliary *do* (*does*, *did*) is frequently used in interrogative, negative, and emphatic sentences; as, *Do you wish to see me? I do not wish to see you. I do wish to see you.*

**Note.** — It will be noticed, that in interrogative sentences the subject separates the auxiliary from the verb. In negative sentences the adverb *not* separates them.

**SUBJUNCTIVE MODE (Old Form).**

*Present* { If I write. / If thou *or* you write. / If he write.

**Note.** — Formerly the present subjunctive was used in expressing present time; but at present it is properly used only when reference is had to future time. Even then, it is regarded by the most learned grammarians as an elliptical form of the potential. (See note, p. 38.)

**IMPERATIVE MODE.**

This mode is used only in the present tense, with a subject in the second person, and has the form of the indicative present; as, *love*, or *do love.*

**INFINITIVES.**

The *infinitive*, though it has no tense, has the forms of the indicative *present*, and *present perfect*, to denote unfinished and finished action; as, (*to*) *love*, (*to*) *have loved.*

**PARTICIPLES.**

| *Imperfect.* | *Perfect.* | *Compound Perfect.* |
|---|---|---|
| loving. | loved. | having loved. |

Conjugation of the verb *be:* —

**PRINCIPAL PARTS.**

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Part.* |
|---|---|---|
| am. | was. | been. |

**INDICATIVE MODE.**

**Present Tense.**

*Am*, with a subject first person singular.
*Is*, with a subject third person singular.
*Are*, with any other subject.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|
| I am. | we ⎫ |
| You are. | you ⎬ are. |
| He is. | they ⎭ |

**Past Tense.**

*Was*, with a subject first or third person singular.
*Were*, with any other subject.

| | |
|---|---|
| I was. | we ⎫ |
| You were. | you ⎬ were. |
| He was. | they ⎭ |

**Present Perfect Tense.**

*Has been*, with a subject third person singular.
*Have been*, with any other subject.

| | |
|---|---|
| I have been. | we ⎫ |
| You have been. | you ⎬ have been. |
| He has been. | they ⎭ |

*Past perfect*, had been.
*Future*, shall *or* will be.
*Future perfect*, shall *or* will have been.

**Poetic Style.**

*Present*, art.
*Past*, wast.
*Present perfect*, hast been.
*Past perfect*, hadst been.
*Future*, shalt *or* wilt be.
*Future perfect* shalt *or* wilt have been.

**POTENTIAL MODE.**

*Present*, may, can, must
*Past*, might, could, would, should } be.
*Present perfect*, may, can, must *have*
*Past perfect*, might, could, would, should *have* } been.

In poetic style, with a subject in the second person singular, *st* is added to each auxiliary, except *must;* as, *mayst*, *canst*, etc.

**SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.**

The subjunctive mode is the same in form as the indicative and potential, except in the *past* tense of the verb *be*. (See note, p. 38.)

| *Singular.* | | *Plural.* | |
|---|---|---|---|
| If I<br>If you<br>If he | were. | If we<br>If you<br>If they | were. |

*Poetic style*, if thou wert.

**IMPERATIVE MODE.**

*Present*, be *or* do be.

**INFINITIVES.**

(To) be. (To) have been.

**PARTICIPLES.**

| *Imperfect.* | *Perfect.* | *Compound Perfect.* |
|---|---|---|
| being. | been. | having been. |

## THE PROGRESSIVE FORM.

There is another form of the active voice peculiar to the English language, called the **progressive form.** It represents an action progressing; begun, but not finished.

It is formed by prefixing the verb *be* in all its modes and tenses to the *imperfect participle* of a *verb;* as,

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| I am | walking. | We are | walking. |
| You are | | You are | |
| He is | | They are | |

**EXERCISE.**

***Put the following sentences in the progressive form, in all the tenses of the indicative mode.***

The girls gather flowers.
The man tells the truth.
Does the man tell the truth?
The sun shines.
Children play.
Birds fly.

### PASSIVE VOICE.

The **passive voice** is formed by prefixing the verb *be*, in all its modes and tenses, to the *perfect participle of a transitive verb;* as,

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| I am<br>You are<br>He is | loved. | We are<br>You are<br>They are | loved. |

#### INFINITIVE PASSIVE.

| *Present.* | *Perfect.* |
|---|---|
| (To) be loved. | (To) have been loved. |

#### PASSIVE PARTICIPLES.

| *Imperfect.* | *Perfect.* | *Compound Perfect.* |
|---|---|---|
| being loved. | loved. | having been loved. |

**Note.** — The imperfect active participle is sometimes used in a passive sense; as, *The house is building:* and the perfect participle is always passive; as, *The man taken (or being taken) in the act, was punished.*

#### EXERCISE I.

***Put the following sentences in the passive voice, in all the tenses of the indicative mode.***

James sees William. Does James see William?

#### EXERCISE II.

***Put the same sentences in the passive voice, in all the tenses of the potential mode.***

**To Teachers.** — It has been common to include person and number as properties of the verb. But the verb has no person and number, in the same sense that nouns and pronouns have.

In many languages the verb is varied in form to show the person and number of the subject.

Thus, the Latin verb *amāre* (to love) is conjugated in the indicative mode present tense, as follows: —

| | |
|---|---|
| *First Person Singular.* | *Plural.* |
| *amo* (I love). | *amāmus* (we love). |
| *Second Person Singular.* | *Plural.* |
| *amas* (you love). | *amātis* (you love). |
| *Third Person Singular.* | *Plural.* |
| *amat* (he loves). | *amant* (they love). |

The other modes and tenses have similar changes.

Here it will be noticed that the Latin verb has a special form for each person and number; while in English, we use the same form five times out of six, — it being varied only by adding *s* in the indicative present when the subject is third person singular.

This, and changing *have* to *has* in the present perfect indicative (when the subject is third person singular), are the only changes for person and number, in common style, in all the modes and tenses. (See conjugation of the verb *love*.)

The irregular verb *be* has a special form for the first and third person singular, of the present and past tenses of the indicative. (See conjugation of the verb *be*.)

With this explanation, it is recommended that in parsing or giving the construction of verbs, pupils be required to state what changes have been made, and omit any reference to person and number when the form is not changed.

A knowledge of these changes is of practical value in writing correctly, while the rule commonly given is not.

If, however, teachers prefer to have the rule given, pupils should understand what, and how little, it means.

## COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.

Adjectives are varied in form to express different degrees of the same quality; as, *great, greater, greatest; industrious, more industrious, most industrious; happy, less happy, least happy.*

The change in form to denote different degrees of quality is called **comparison.**

There are three degrees of comparison, — the **positive,** the **comparative,** and the **superlative.**

The *positive* simply expresses the quality.

The *comparative* expresses a higher or lower degree of the quality.

The *superlative* expresses the highest or lowest degree of the quality.

Adjectives of one syllable, and many adjectives of two syllables, express a higher and the highest degree by the addition of *r* or *er*, *st* or *est*, to the positive.

Adjectives of more than two syllables are usually compared by prefixing *more* and *most* to the positive.

All adjectives that admit of different degrees of the quality, are made to express a lower and the lowest degree of the quality by prefixing *less* and *least* to the positive.

Many **adverbs** are compared like adjectives; as,

*soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest; pleasantly, more* (or *less*) *pleasantly, most* (or *least*) *pleasantly.*

**Note.** — These are general rules, but not always strictly adhered to. All adjectives that admit of the degrees of comparison may be compared by *more* and *most;* as, *It is most true. He possesses the most ample means. One boy is more industrious than another.*

Some adjectives are irregularly compared; as,

| *Positive.* | *Comparative.* | *Superlative.* |
|---|---|---|
| good, | better, | best. |
| bad, ill, *or* evil, | worse, | worst. |
| little, | less, | least. |
| late, | later, | latest *or* last. |
| much *or* many, | more, | most, |
| | inner, | inmost *or* innermost. |
| | nether, | nethermost. |
| | upper, | uppermost *or* upmost. |

*This, that, these, those, former, latter, each, every, either, some, one, any, all, such,* are more properly classed with the *adjective* than with the *pronoun,* since they will always admit a noun after them, like other adjectives used as nouns; as, *This* (*man*) *is the person. Each* (*voter*) *has a ballot. Some* (*persons*) *think so. The former* (*statement*) *is true, the latter* (*statement*) *is not.*

**Note.** — The usual division into *demonstrative, distributive,* and *indefinite,* is not a grammatical distinction, but one dependent on the meaning.

# PART III.

# SYNTAX.

## CONSTRUCTION AND ARRANGEMENT.

By **construction** is meant the grammatical relation of the words in a sentence. **Arrangement** has reference simply to their position; as,

The acquisition of knowledge is one of the most pleasing employments of the human mind in every period of life.

In every period of life, the acquisition of knowledge is one of the most pleasing employments of the human mind.

In these sentences the arrangement is different, but the construction is the same.

**Rule 1.** The subject of a sentence is in the nominative case.

**Note 1.** — The subject may be a noun, as, "*John* studies;" or a pronoun, as, "*He* learns;" or a phrase, as, "*To see* the sun is pleasant;" or a clause, as, "*That he told the truth* is evident."

**Note 2.** — This is important only in regard to pronouns. Nouns, phrases, and clauses have the same form in the nominative and the objective cases; as, The *boys* are here. I see the *boys*. *To see* is to believe. I wish *to see*.

**Note 3.** — When the verb is in the imperative mode, the subject is not commonly expressed.

**Note 4.** — In arrangement, the subject is generally placed before the predicate. But in interrogative sentences, and in sentences introduced by

*there* or *here*, the subject is placed after the verb, or between the auxiliary and the verb; as, *Are you well? Will you go with me? There are seven days in a week. Here is the book.*

**Note 5.** — In the subjunctive mode, a condition may be expressed by inverting the subject and predicate; as, *Were it not so, I would tell you.*

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**Rule 2.** — In the indicative present, and present perfect, the form of the verb is changed when the subject is third person singular. See conjugation of *love*, p. 46.

The form of the verb *be* is also varied in the present and past tenses. See conjugation of *be*, p. 49.

**Note 1.** — A compound subject consisting of two or more singular nouns denoting different persons or things, and connected by *and*, is plural; as, "Virtue and vice *have their* reward."

**Note 2.** — If the nouns denote the same or similar things, the subject is commonly singular; as, "This good man and exemplary Christian *is* no more." "A bustle, and the sound of horses' feet *was* now heard."

**Note 3.** — A compound subject, consisting of two or more singular nouns connected by *or* or *nor*, is singular; as, "The boy's father or mother *deserves* great praise."

**Note 4.** — If one of the nouns constituting a compound subject is plural, the subject is plural; as, "William or his brothers *were* present." "Neither Sarah nor her sisters *were* there."

**Note 5.** — When a compound subject consists of nouns or pronouns of different persons, the subject is in the person of the word nearest the verb.

**Rule 3.** — Adjectives and participles directly limit nouns, and substitutes for nouns; as, *The kind king, extending his hand, raised this suppliant.*

REMARK. — When a word limits another without the use of a preposition, the limitation is *direct;* when the words are connected by a preposition, it is *indirect.*

**Note 1.** — An adjective may be a word, a phrase, or a clause.

**Note 2.** — Adjectives implying unity or plurality must agree in number with nouns; as, *This man; these men; ten men.*

**Note 3.** — *Many* is used with a singular noun, when followed by the indefinite article; as, *Many a man. Full many a gem.*

**Note 4.** — An adjective limiting the predicate refers to the subject, and is called the predicate adjective; as, The boy is *kind.*

**Note 5.** — An adjective is commonly placed before the noun it limits: but when it is itself limited by a phrase, it follows the noun; as, *The master found the pupil adequate to the task.*

**Rule 4.** Adverbs directly modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs; as, He was a *very* wise man. The boy acted *very* foolishly.

**Note 1.** — An adverb may be a word, a phrase, or a clause; as, *The boy is here. He is in this room. He came before school began.*

**Note 2.** — What are called "adverbs of affirmation and negation" (responsives), *yes, no, yea, nay,* perform the office of a sentence; as, *Will you go? Yes,* — that is, *I will go.*

**Note 3.** — *There,* when not an adverb of place, adds nothing to the sense, but simply inverts the order of the subject and predicate. It is an *expletive,* and does not limit; as, *There is a pleasure in the pathless woods.*

**Rule 5.** A noun or pronoun directly limiting another, and denoting the same person or thing, is in the same case, by apposition; as, *Homer the poet was blind. He spoke of Howard the philanthropist. We the subscribers agree, etc.*

**Note 1.** — The parts taken separately, are often in apposition with the whole; as, *The men struck each other.* Here *each* is in apposition with *men*, denoting them separately, and *other* is the object of *struck.*

**Note 2.** — Parts connected by a conjunction may be collectively in apposition with the whole; as, "The people dispersed *some* this way, *others* that way.

**Rule 6.** Intransitive and passive verbs have the same case after as before them, when both words denote the same person or thing; as, *I* am *he.* *It* is *I.* I know *it* to be *him.* *He* was called *John.*

**Rule 7.** A noun or pronoun denoting possession, and directly limiting another noun, is in the *possessive case;* as, *William's* book has been badly used.

**Note 1.** — This is the only case-inflection of the noun.

**Note 2.** — Two or more nouns denoting joint owners have the possessive form affixed only to the last; as, "Harper and Sanford's pianofortes."

**Note 3.** — If the nouns denote the several owners, the possessive form must be given to each; as, "William's, John's, and Mary's books."

**Note 4.** — A phrase in the possessive has the case sign at the end; as, "The *queen of England's* health." "*Anybody else's* mistake."

**Note 5.** — In such expressions as, "It came from Brown's the grocer," or "from Brown the grocer's," the sign of the possessive may be appended to either noun, but not to both.

**Rule 8.** The direct object of an active transitive verb is in the objective case; as, I saw *him.* We heard *them.*

**Note 1.** — Participles and infinitives derived from transitive verbs take the objective case after them; as, "*Seeing him* pleased me." "The boy, *seeing me*, ran to me."

**Rule 9.** Prepositions take the objective case after them; as, I spoke *to him*, and he replied *to me*.

**Rule 10.** An infinitive phrase may limit a verb, noun, adjective, or adverb: as, A *desire* to excel; *used* to play with; *ready* to play; too *rapidly* to stop.

**Note 1.** — After *bid*, *dare*, *hear*, *feel*, *make*, *see*, *let*, *need*, and a few others in the active voice, the simple infinitive (without the sign *to*) is used.

**Note 2.** — When the infinitive phrase is used as a subject, it has no antecedent term of relation; as, *To see the sun is pleasant.* But when the sentence is inverted, *to* connects; as, *It is pleasant to see the sun.*

**Rule 11.** A noun or pronoun having no grammatical relation to other words is used independently in the nominative case.

**Note 1.** — 1. By direct address; as, "*Charles*, come to me."

2. By exclamation; as, "Poor Indians! where are they now?"

3. By redundancy; as, "The Pilgrim Fathers, where are they?"

4. With a participle; as, "The ship having arrived, the sailors left."

**Note 2.** — The first person of the personal pronoun is sometimes used independently in the *objective* case; as, *Me miserable! Ah me!*

**Rule 12.** Pronouns must agree in person, number, and gender, with the nouns they represent; as, Jane saw *her* mother. William takes care of *his* brother.

EXCEPTION. — *It* is sometimes used without reference to the gender or number of the noun it represents; as, "When I took the child, *it* cried." "*It* is our *passions* which we ought most to fear."

**Note 1.** — This rule requires no change of form in the relative pronouns; and the form in personal pronouns is not changed for gender, except in the third person singular.

**Note 2.** — A noun personified requires the pronoun to agree with it in gender, in the figurative sense; as, "Give to Repose the solemn hour *she* claims."

**Note 3.** — A phrase or a clause used as a noun is in the third person, singular number, neuter gender.

**Rule 13.** A preposition connects a limiting word with the word limited; as, He spoke *to* me. He is a man *of* sense.

**Note 1.** — The preposition is commonly placed before the nouns or pronouns they govern, except in interrogative sentences.

**Rule 14.** Conjunctions connect words, phrases, clauses, and sentences; as, Four *and* five are nine. I saw the man in the street *and* at his home. He came *before* I left. James abused his books, *but* Sarah carefully preserved hers.

**Note 1.** — Co-ordinate conjunctions connect the same or similar parts of speech, phrases and clauses in the same construction; as, "James *and* William went home." "I saw the boy *and* the girl." "The man spoke slowly *and* distinctly." "We are required to deal justly *and* to love mercy."

**Note 2.** — In almost all cases in which words and phrases in the same construction are connected, they may be regarded as contracted sentences (see p. 21). There are a few exceptional cases in which no such contraction exists; as, *Four and five are nine. John and Jane are a handsome couple.*

**Note 3.** — Subordinate conjunctions and relative pronouns connect clauses with the statements limited by them; as, "I shall go *if* I can." "I saw the man *that* called." "He was here *while* you were absent."

**Rule 15.** Interjections have no grammatical relation to other words.

## PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation treats of the method of dividing written language into sentences and parts of sentences.

### CHARACTERS USED IN PUNCTUATION.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Period, | . | Comma, | , |
| Interrogation, | ? | Dash, | — |
| Exclamation, | ! | Parentheses, | ( ) |
| Colon, | : | Quotation, | " " |
| Semicolon, | ; | Apostrophe, | ' |

### THE PERIOD.

**Rule 1.** A period should be placed at the end of a declarative sentence; as,

Life is short.

**Rule 2.** A period should be used after initials and abbreviations; as,

D. Webster, U. S. A., R. I., Mass., Gov.

### THE INTERROGATION POINT.

**Rule.** An interrogation point should be placed at the end of an interrogative sentence; as,

Where did you see him?

### THE EXCLAMATION POINT.

**Rule 1.** An exclamation point should be placed at the end of an exclamatory sentence; as,

Hurry, hurry to the field!

**Rule 2.** An exclamation point is used after words or phrases expressing passion or emotion; as,

Poor Indians! where are they now?

### THE COMMA.

**Rule 1.** A simple sentence requires no comma, when the arrangement and construction coincide; as,

This destruction raged from Madras to Tanjore for eighteen months without intermission.

**Rule 2.** When the arrangement and construction do not coincide, the inversion may be marked by a comma; as,

For eighteen months, this destruction raged, without intermission, from Madras to Tanjore.

**Rule 3.** Explanatory clauses are separated from the statements or clauses on which they depend, by a comma; as,

We see the emblem of our fate in flowers, which bloom and die.

**Rule 4.** Restrictive clauses are not commonly separated from the statements or clauses on which they depend; as,

A man that steals deserves punishment.

**Rule 5.** A series of words or phrases in the same construction requires a comma to indicate the omis-

sion of the conjunction, — and between the last two of the series, though the conjunction is expressed; as,

Happy is the man who honors, obeys, loves, and serves his Creator.

To live soberly, to speak truthfully, and to act honestly, is the duty of every man.

**Rule 6.** Contrasted words and phrases are separated by a comma; as,

He was a great poet, but a bad man.

**Rule 7.** Nouns in apposition are separated by a comma when the word used to explain is limited by other words; as,

Paul, the apostle to the Gentiles, was eminent for his zeal.

**Rule 8.** A comma should be placed before the conjunction *or* when what follows it, explains, or is in apposition with what precedes it; as,

I heard the voice of the skipper, or captain of the boat.

## THE SEMICOLON.

**Rule 1.** The members of a compound sentence may be separated by a semicolon; as,

Every gift of Heaven is sometimes abused; but good sense and fine talents, by a natural law, gravitate towards virtue.

**Note.** — If the sentence is short and neither of the members is subdivided, they may be separated by a comma.

**Rule 2.** Clauses and phrases, having a common dependence, may be separated by a semicolon when one of them is divisible by a comma; as,

He who, in the study of science, has discovered a new means of alleviating pain; who has suggested a new method of remedying disease, — has left a memorial of himself never to be forgotten.

**Rule 3.** *As*, or *namely*, introducing an example, is preceded by a semicolon, and followed by a comma; *as*,

We should speak the truth.

### THE COLON.

**Rule.** The colon is sometimes used to separate parts of a sentence, one of which is subdivided by a semicolon; as,

The sentence was divided into two parts: in the first was shown the necessity of exercise; in the second, the advantage that results from it.

### THE DASH, ETC.

**Rule 1.** The dash is used to denote that a sentence is incomplete; as,

Once, upon a time, some men dressed all alike —

**Rule 2.** To denote an abrupt turn in the form of the sentence, or in the sentiment; as,

Was there ever — But I scorn to boast.

I said — I know not what.

**Rule 3.** To enclose a parenthetical phrase or clause; as,

Know, then, this truth, — enough for man to know, —
Virtue alone is happiness below.

Marks of parenthesis denote that the words enclosed may be omitted without injuring the construction of the sentence, or detracting materially from the sense; as,

Know, then, this truth (enough for man to know),
Virtue alone is happiness below.

**Note.** — Either method of marking what is parenthetical is allowable, the dashes being commonly used where the parenthesis is short.

Quotation marks denote that the passage enclosed is taken in the *words* of the author; as, The poet says,

"The proper study of mankind is man."

An apostrophe denotes the omission of a letter or letters, and is the sign of the possessive case of nouns; as,

I'm sure of it, *you'll* ne'er forget.
A friend should bear a *friend's* infirmities.

## USE OF CAPITALS.

**Rule 1.** The first word of a sentence should begin with a capital; as,

The boy studies.

**Rule 2.** Proper nouns, and words derived from them, should begin with capitals; as,

Spain, Spanish, Spaniard.

**Rule 3.** All names applied to the Deity should begin with capitals; as,

God. The Almighty. The Supreme Being.

**Rule 4.** The names of the months, and of the days of the week, should begin with capitals; as,

January, February: Tuesday, Friday.

**Rule 5.** The names of public bodies should begin with capitals; as,

The Legislature; Boston Temperance Society.

**Rule 6.** The words I and O are written with capitals.

**Rule 7.** The names of religious denominations and political parties should begin with capitals; as,

Baptists, Methodists, Republicans, Democrats.

**Rule 8.** All titles should begin with capitals; as,

Mr., Col., Esq., Rev., Dr.

**Rule 9.** A direct quotation should begin with a capital; as, They said,

"Never man spake like this man."

**Rule 10.** The principal words in the titles or divis-

ions of a book or discourse should begin with capitals; as,

Rules for Analysis and Construction.

**Rule 11.** The first word in every line of poetry should begin with a capital; as,

"The curfew tolls the knell of parting day;
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea;
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me."

## PART IV.

### TABLE OF IRREGULAR PLURALS, FOR REFERENCE.

| *Singular.* | *Plural.* | *Singular.* | *Plural.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| man, | men. | ox, | oxen. |
| woman, | women. | tooth, | teeth. |
| child, | children. | mouse, | mice. |

penny { pence. / pennies (pieces of coin).

brother { brothers (of the same family). / brethren (of the same association).

die { dies (used to stamp coin). / dice (used in games).

genius { geniuses (applied to human beings). / genii (applied to spiritual beings).

Words composed of a noun and the adjective *full*, have the regular plural: as, *handful, handfuls; spoonful, spoonfuls; mouthful, mouthfuls; pailful, pailfuls.*

Words composed of a noun and an adjective have commonly the plural termination added to the noun: as, *court-martial, courts-martial; knight-errant, knights-errant.*

Words composed of two nouns have the regular plural: as, *night-steed, night-steeds; tide-waiter, tide-waiters.*

Words composed of two nouns connected by a preposition have the plural termination added to the first word: as, *father-in-law, fathers-in-law; son-in-law, sons-in-law.*

A letter or figure is made plural by adding an apostrophe and *s:* as, *seven a's; four 9's.*

Many words from foreign languages retain, for a longer or shorter time, their original plural; as, *phenomenon, phenomena; radius, radii; crisis, crises,* etc. (See dictionary.)

## GENDER.

The distinction of sex is expressed:—

1. By different words: as,

| *Masculine.* | *Feminine.* | *Masculine.* | *Feminine.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| bachelor, | maid. | husband, | wife. |
| beau, | belle. | king, | queen. |
| boy, | girl. | lad, | lass. |
| brother, | sister. | landlord, | landlady. |
| buck, | doe. | lord, | lady. |
| bull, | cow. | man, | woman. |
| drake, | duck. | master, | mistress. |
| earl, | countess. | nephew, | niece. |
| father, | mother. | papa, | mamma. |
| friar, | nun. | ram, | ewe. |
| gander, | goose. | son, | daughter. |
| gentleman, | lady. | uncle, | aunt. |
| hart, | roe. | wizard, | witch. |

2. By difference of termination: as,

| *Masculine.* | *Feminine.* | *Masculine.* | *Feminine.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| abbot, | abbess. | hero, | heroine. |
| actor, | actress. | host, | hostess. |
| administrator, | administratrix. | hunter, | huntress. |
| ambassador, | ambassadress. | Jew, | Jewess. |
| author, | authoress. | landgrave, | landgravine. |
| baron, | baroness. | lion, | lioness. |
| benefactor, | benefactress. | marquis, | marchioness. |
| bridegroom, | bride. | margrave, | margravine. |
| count, | countess. | negro, | negress. |
| czar, | czarina. | patron, | patroness. |
| dauphin, | dauphiness. | peer, | peeress. |
| deacon, | deaconess. | priest, | priestess. |
| don, | donna. | prince, | princess. |
| duke, | duchess. | prophet, | prophetess. |
| emperor, | empress. | shepherd, | shepherdess. |
| enchanter, | enchantress. | songster, | songstress. |
| executor, | executrix. | sorcerer, | sorceress. |
| giant, | giantess. | sultan, | sultana. |
| governor, | governess. | testator, | testatrix. |
| heir, | heiress. | widower, | widow. |

3. By different words prefixed: as,

| *Masculine.* | *Feminine.* |
|---|---|
| man-servant, | maid-servant. |
| male-child, | female-child. |

**Note.** — This method of distinguishing the gender is becoming less and less frequent, and in several of the words here given, the feminine form is seldom used.

## TABLE OF IRREGULAR VERBS, FOR REFERENCE.

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|
| am or be, | was, | been. |
| arise, | arose, | arisen. |
| bear (to bring forth), | bore or *bare*, | born. |
| bear (to uphold), | bore, *bare*, | borne. |
| beat, | beat, | *beaten* or beat. |
| begin, | began, | begun. |
| bid, | bid, bade, | *bidden*, bid. |
| bite, | bit, | *bitten*, bit. |
| blow, | blew, | blown. |
| break, | broke, *brake*, | broken. |
| chide, | chid, | *chidden*, chid. |
| choose, | chose, | chosen. |
| cleave (to split), | *clove*, cleft, | *cloven*, cleft. |
| come, | came, | come. |
| do, | did, | done. |
| draw, | drew, | drawn. |
| drink, | drank, | drank, drunk. |
| drive, | drove, | driven. |
| eat, | ate, eat, | *eaten* or eat. |
| fall, | fell, | fallen. |
| fly, | flew, | flown. |
| forbear, | forbore, | forborne. |
| forget, | forgot, | *forgotten*, forgot. |
| forsake, | forsook, | forsaken. |
| freeze, | froze, | frozen. |

**Note.** — Old forms in Italics.

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|
| get, | got, | *gotten*, got. |
| give, | gave, | given. |
| go, | went, | gone. |
| grow, | grew, | grown. |
| hide, | hid, | *hidden*, hid. |
| hold, | held, | held, *holden*. |
| know, | knew, | known. |
| lade (to load),[1] | laded, | laden. |
| lie (to recline), | lay, | lain, *lien*. |
| ride, | rode, | ridden. |
| ring, | rang, rung, | rung. |
| rise, | rose, | risen. |
| run, | ran, *run*, | run. |
| see, | saw, | seen. |
| shake, | shook, | shaken. |
| sing, | *sang*, sung, | sung. |
| sink, | *sank*, sunk, | sunk. |
| slay, | slew, | slain. |
| smite, | smote, | smitten, smit. |
| speak, | spoke, *spake*, | spoken. |
| spring, | *sprang*, sprung, | sprung. |
| steal, | stole, | stolen. |
| stride, | strode, | stridden. |
| strive, | strove, | striven. |
| swear, | swore, | sworn. |
| swim, | *swam*, swum, | swum. |
| take, | took, | taken. |
| tear, | tore, | torn. |

[1] Lade, *to dip*, is regular.

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|
| throw, | threw, | thrown. |
| tread, | trod, | *trodden* or trod. |
| wear, | wore, | worn. |
| write, | wrote, | written. |
| weave, | wove, | *woven*, wove. |

**IRREGULAR VERBS WHOSE PAST TENSE AND PERFECT PARTICIPLES ARE ALIKE.**

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|
| abide, | abode, | abode. |
| bend, | bent, | bent. |
| beseech, | besought, | besought. |
| bind, | bound, | bound. |
| bleed, | bled, | bled. |
| breed, | bred, | bred. |
| bring, | brought, | brought. |
| burst, | burst, | burst. |
| buy, | bought, | bought. |
| cast, | cast, | cast. |
| catch, | caught, | caught. |
| cling, | clung, | clung. |
| cost, | cost, | cost. |
| creep, | crept, | crept. |
| cut, | cut, | cut. |
| dig, | dug, | dug. |
| feed, | fed, | fed. |
| feel, | felt, | felt. |
| fight, | fought, | fought. |
| find, | found, | found. |

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|
| flee, | fled, | fled. |
| fling, | flung, | flung. |
| grind, | ground, | ground. |
| have, | had, | had. |
| hear, | heard, | heard. |
| hit, | hit, | hit. |
| hurt, | hurt, | hurt. |
| keep, | kept, | kept. |
| lay, | laid, | laid. |
| lead, | led, | led. |
| leave, | left, | left. |
| lend, | lent, | lent. |
| let, | let, | let. |
| lose, | lost, | lost. |
| make, | made, | made |
| mean, | meant, | meant. |
| meet, | met, | met. |
| pay, | paid, | paid. |
| put, | put, | put. |
| read, | read,[2] | read.[2] |
| rend, | rent, | rent. |
| rid, | rid, | rid. |
| say, | said, | said. |
| seek, | sought. | sought. |
| sell, | sold, | sold. |
| send, | sent, | sent. |
| set, | set, | set. |
| shed, | shed, | shed. |
| shoe, | shod, | shod. |

[2] Pronounced *red*.

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|
| shoot, | shot, | shot. |
| shrink, | shrank, | shrunk. |
| shut, | shut, | shut. |
| sit, | sat, | sat. |
| sleep, | slept, | slept. |
| slide, | slid, | slid. |
| sling, | slung, | slung. |
| slink, | slunk, | slunk. |
| slit, | slit, | slit, slitted, |
| speed, | sped, | sped. |
| spend, | spent, | spent. |
| spin, | spun, | spun. |
| spit, | spit, | spit. |
| split, | split, | split. |
| spread | spread | spread |
| stand, | stood, | stood. |
| stick, | stuck, | stuck. |
| sting, | stung, | stung. |
| strike, | struck, | struck. |
| string, | strung, | strung. |
| sweep, | swept, | swept. |
| swing, | swung, | swung. |
| teach, | taught, | taught. |
| tell, | told, | told. |
| think, | thougnt, | thought. |
| thrust, | thrust, | thrust. |
| weep, | wept, | wept. |
| win, | won, | won. |
| wind, | wound, | wound. |
| wring, | wrung, | wrung. |

The following verbs are sometimes regular, and sometimes irregular, in the formation of their principal parts: —

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|
| awake, | awoke, awaked, | awaked. |
| bereave, | bereft, bereaved, | bereft, bereaved. |
| blend, | blended, | blended, blent. |
| build, | built, builded, | built, builded. |
| burn, | burned, burnt, | burned, burnt. |
| cleave (to adhere), | cleaved, clave, | cleaved. |
| clothe, | clothed, clad, | clothed, clad. |
| crow, | crowed, crew, | crowed. |
| dare (to venture), | dared, durst, | dared. |
| deal, | dealt, dealed, | dealt, dealed. |
| dream, | dreamed, dreamt, | dreamed, dreamt. |
| dwell, | dwelt, dwelled, | dwelt, dwelled. |
| gild, | gilded, gilt, | gilded, gilt. |
| gird, | girded, girt, | girded, girt. |
| grave, | graved, | graven, graved. |
| hang, | hung, hanged,[1] | hung, hanged. |
| hew, | hewed, | *hewn*, hewed. |
| kneel, | knelt, kneeled, | knelt, kneeled. |
| knit, | knit, knitted, | knit, knitted. |
| light, | lighted, lit, | lighted, lit. |
| mow, | mowed, | mown, mowed. |
| pen (to enclose), | pent, penned, | pent, penned. |
| quit, | quit, quitted, | quit, quitted. |
| rive, | rived, | riven, rived. |

[1] Regular when it denotes the taking of life.

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|
| rot, | rotted, | rotten, rotted. |
| saw, | sawed, | sawn, sawed. |
| shape, | shaped, | shapen, shaped. |
| shave, | shaved, | shaven, shaved. |
| shear, | sheared, | *shorn*, sheared. |
| show, | showed, | shown, showed. |
| sow, | sowed, | *sown*, sowed. |
| spell, | spelt, spelled, | spelt, spelled. |
| spill, | spilt, spilled, | spilt, spilled. |
| strew, | strewed, | *strewn*, strewed. |
| strow, | strowed, | *strown*, strowed. |
| swell, | swelled, | *swollen*, swelled. |
| thrive, | thrived, *throve*, | thriven, thrived. |
| wax, | waxed, | waxen, waxed. |
| whet, | whet, whetted, | whet, whetted. |
| work, | wrought, worked, | wrought, worked. |

**Note to Teachers.** — All the irregular verbs (so called) are of Anglo-Saxon origin. Many verbs, formerly irregular, are now regular; as, *work, wrought, wrought*, — now regular; *reach, raught, raught*, — now regular; *bedeck, bedight, bedight*, — now regular.

There are also others partially modernized; as, *sow, sowed, sowed* or *sown*.

In others, there is a strong tendency to make the past tense and the perfect participle alike, by retaining but one form; as, *sing, sung, sung; drink, drank, drank; hold, held, held; get, got, got*.

## EXERCISES ON THE MODES AND TENSES OF VERBS.

### EXERCISE I.

The robin returns with the spring.

***State or write this sentence, putting the verb into all the tenses of the indicative mode, declarative form; and then change the sentences to the interrogative form.***

### EXERCISE II.

The pupils are studious.

***Put the verb in this sentence into all the tenses of the potential mode, declarative form; and then change the sentences to the interrogative form.***

### EXERCISE III.

***In place of the nouns italicized, substitute an infinitive, using both forms, — the infinitive phrase, and the infinitive in* ing.**

1. The *sight* of the sun is pleasant.
2. The *defence* of our rights is lawful.
3. *Humility* is becoming to the young.
4. *Relief* of the poor is in the power of wealth.
5. The *service* of God should be the great object of life.
6. The kind *treatment* of enemies makes them friends.
7. His object was the *acquisition* of money.
8. The *indulgence* of our appetites is often injurious.
9. *Death* for one's country is sweet.
10. A *love* for wisdom makes us wise.

***Substitute each of the forms in the example for the italicized verbs in these sentences, and make such other changes as the sense requires.***

**EXAMPLE.**

*Indicative.* Charles *expresses* his opinion modestly.

*Potential.* Charles *must express* his opinion modestly.

*Subjunctive.* If Charles *express* his opinion modestly, he will be listened to.

*Imperative.* Charles, *express* your opinion modestly.

*An infinitive.* Charles is requested *to express* his opinion modestly.

*A participle.* Charles, *expressing* his opinion modestly, was eagerly listened to.

**EXERCISE IV.**

(1) Pupils *obey* their teachers, and meet their approval.

(2) We *gain* wisdom by experience, and become truly wise.

(3) The poor man *is* frugal in his habits, and he will be respected.

(4) The pupils *make* great efforts, and they will succeed.

(5) The men *are* industrious, and they will thrive.

**Note.** — This exercise may be extended at the discretion of the teacher, by requiring the sentences to be put into any or all of the tenses of the several modes.

## PROPER USE OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

*That* is preferable to *who* or *which* in a restrictive clause; as, *The boys that I saw reminded me of my*

*younger days.* (Here the assertion is not made of all boys, but is restricted to *the boys that I saw.*)

*That* is also preferable to *who* or *which*, —

1st, After the word *same.*

2d, After an adjective in the superlative degree.

3d, After the interrogative pronoun *who.*

4th, When the antecedent consists of both persons and things. *Who* or *which* is preferable to *that* when used in explanation; as, *We see the emblem of our fate in flowers, which bloom and die.* (Here *which* does not restrict *flowers* to a certain class, but adds something that is common to all flowers.)

**EXERCISE.**

***Supply the blanks with the proper relative pronouns.***

(1) This is the same man —— we met yesterday.

(2) The warrior —— is successful, is idolized by the thoughtless.

(3) Washington was perhaps the most respected president —— has filled the executive chair.

(4) Who, —— has any sense of justice, would act differently?

(5) I saw a boy and sled —— reminded me of old times.

(6) John Howard, —— was a true philanthropist, died greatly lamented.

(7) Wisdom is the best possession —— a man can have.

## SENTENCES.

A **sentence** may be *simple, compound,* or *complex.*

The essential parts of a sentence are the *simple subject* and the *simple predicate.*

A **simple sentence** contains but one subject and one predicate; as, *A man's happiness depends primarily upon his disposition.*

Both the subject and the predicate may be limited by phrases and words; as, *Every art may prove dangerous in the hands of bad men.*

The subject may be compound, and the predicate simple; or, the predicate may be compound, and the subject simple; as, *Virtue and vice are opposed to each other. Steam serves man, and also destroys him.*

A **compound sentence** contains two or more independent statements; as, *The sagacity of Newton led him to his great discovery, and he now stands at the head of philosophers.*

A **complex sentence** contains one independent statement, and one or more subordinate statements called clauses; as, *It was Cæsar who won the battle.*

Either or both of the members of a compound sentence may be complex; as, *Every boy that expects success in life must be industrious; and every man*

*that would be respected, must live so as to deserve respect.*

A complex sentence may have compound clauses; as, *We all know that evil communications corrupt good manners, and that the companionship of the virtuous is elevating.*

## PRACTICAL EXERCISES IN CONSTRUCTION, ARRANGEMENT, AND EXPRESSION.

### EXPANSION OF WORDS TO PHRASES.

#### EXAMPLE.

*Energetic* men are *commonly* successful.

Expanded: —

Men of energy are, in most cases, successful.

---

#### EXERCISE I.

***Expand the italicized words into phrases.***

(1) The husbandman's treasures are renewed *yearly*.

(2) Cromwell acted *sternly* and *decidedly* on *important* matters.

(3) *Important* acts were passed by the senate.

(4) A *sincere* man is a *very valuable* friend.

(5) *Tranquil* scenes soothe the wounded spirit.

(6) *Large* animals are *commonly* strong.

(7) *Valiant* men taste of death but once.

(8) *Wealthy* men should give *liberally.*

(9) The sun was *then* supposed to revolve round the earth.

(10) The man *boldly* discharged his duty.

**EXAMPLE.**

The *just* man acts according to the dictates *of conscience.*

Expanded: —

The man that is just acts as his conscience dictates.

---

**EXERCISE II.**

***Expand the italicized words and phrases into clauses.***

(1) *Quarrelsome* persons are despised.

(2) The manner *of his escape* is a profound mystery.

(3) Some persons believe the planets *to be* inhabited.

(4) *Truly wise* philosophers are fewer than *very learned* scholars.

(5) *His guilt* or *innocence* is still uncertain.

(6) *With patience* he might have succeeded.

(7) The battle *having been fought,* the general began to estimate his loss.

(8) No one doubts *the roundness of the earth.*

(9) The barricade *being forced,* the crowd rushed out.

(10) He believed *his health to be* improving.

**CONTRACTION OF COMPLEX INTO SIMPLE SENTENCES.**

This may be done by changing a clause to a phrase.

**EXAMPLE.**

When father returned, the boys received presents.

Contracted: —

On father's return, the boys received presents.

---

**EXERCISE I.**

(1) One man, who had a good trade, lost his luck in fishing.

(2) The gentleman will be pleased if his son improves.

(3) When the gentleman left town, he probably returned to his family.

(4) The man who is often changing his friendships, can never have a true friend.

(5) While we cling to our friends, the unseen hand of Providence tears them from our embrace.

(6) The sweet breeze, that makes the green leaves dance, shall cool thy fevered brow.

(7) He leaned back in his carriage while he was carried along.

(8) When the boy saw his father, he ran to embrace him.

(9) When the teacher found his pupils idle, he reproved them.

(10) After the gentleman had settled his affairs, he left the country.

### EXERCISE II.

(1) As he walked towards the bridge, he met his friend.

(2) When he had spoken two hours, the member resumed his seat.

(3) The ground is never frozen in Palestine, as the cold is not severe.

(4) Socrates declared that virtue is its own reward.

(5) When darkness broke away, the town wore a strange aspect.

(6) After he had suppressed the conspiracy, he led his troops into Italy.

(7) There are many ills that we cannot avoid.

(8) As the door was open, the boy entered the house.

(9) After he met his friend, he returned with him to his house.

(10) Since I saw you, I have heard from my father.

### CONTRACTION OF COMPOUND SENTENCES INTO COMPLEX.

This may be done by using a subordinate conjunction or a relative pronoun to connect two of its members.

#### EXAMPLE.

The sea spent its fury, and then it became calm.

Contracted: —

When the sea had spent its fury, it became calm.

**EXERCISE.**

(1) The premises were admitted, and the conclusion followed.

(2) The officers were chosen, and then the meeting adjourned.

(3) Nature is full of unknown things, and the opportunities for discovery are still great.

(4) The sun rose, and the gray mist evaporated.

(5) My country has done me justice, and I have no reason to complain.

(6) The stars went out, and the wind came roaring down the mountain.

(7) It was summer, and the heat was intense.

(8) The charms of spring were past, and the glow of summer succeeded.

(9) The crime was great, and the punishment should be severe.

(10) Nature had put a coat of many colors upon the woodlands, and they were gay and beautiful.

(11) Expert men can execute, and judge of particulars, but the general counsels come best from the learned.

(12) The boy wished to secure the good-will of his teacher, and he performed his duties faithfully.

(13) Dryden knew more of man in his general nature, but Pope knew more of him in his local manners.

### SIMPLE SENTENCES UNITED TO FORM COMPOUND SENTENCES.

#### EXAMPLE.

Man is a rational being.
Man is endowed with the highest capacity for happiness.
Man often mistakes his best interests.
Man often pursues trifles with all his energies.
Man considers trifles as the chief object of desire.

United and contracted :—

Man is a rational being, endowed with the highest capacity for happiness; but he often mistakes his best interests, and pursues trifles with all his energies, considering them the chief object of desire.

#### EXERCISE.

(1)
Men of courage do not fear danger.
They do not needlessly run into danger.
They avoid danger except in the performance of duty.

(2)
We acquire knowledge by reading.
We acquire knowledge by study.
We acquire knowledge by conversation.
We acquire knowledge by observation.
We prepare ourselves for usefulness and happiness.
Knowledge gives us power.
Power adds to our self-respect.

(3)
- Labor strengthens the body.
- Labor promotes health.
- Labor gives a relish to food.
- Labor helps us overcome obstacles.
- Labor is rewarded by success.
- Idleness weakens the body.
- Idleness destroys the appetite.
- Idleness brings on disease.

(4)
- Wealth may give us the respect of the ignorant.
- Wealth may give us the respect of the corrupt.
- Wealth will not recommend us to the wise.
- Wealth will not recommend us to the good.

(5)
- The soldiers fled in confusion.
- The soldiers were pursued by the enemy.
- The soldiers escaped with difficulty.
- The soldiers entered the city.
- The soldiers shut down the gates.

### INVERSION.

#### EXAMPLE.

New races of animals rise into existence with each succeeding month.

Inverted :—

With each succeeding month, new races of animals rise into existence.

New races of animals, with each succeeding month, rise into existence.

### EXERCISE I.

***Invert the following sentences in as many ways as possible, and punctuate the inverted sentences.***

(1) Science is conquering the great obstacles of nature by its application to the arts of life.

(2) While hope remains there can be no positive misery.

(3) New races of animals rise into existence with each succeeding month.

(4) This destruction raged from the gates of Madras to the gates of Tanjore for eighteen months without intermission.

(5) I found the following fragment in looking over the papers of an acquaintance.

(6) The end of all government is the happiness of the governed.

(7) In the midst of perplexities it is wrong to be discouraged.

(8) How beautiful to the eye of faith is the sunset hour!

(9) According to the popular notion, a genius learns without study, and knows without learning.

(10) When the farmer came down to breakfast the next morning, he declared that his watch had gained half an hour in the night.

**Note to Teachers.** — These sentences may be used for analysis, and the pupil will see that the arrangement only is changed, and not the construction.

### EXERCISE II.

***Invert as above, and punctuate.*** (See Rules.)

(1) A straw will furnish the occasion when people are determined to quarrel.

(2) The man of long experience, who seldom errs in judgment, is a suitable person to be consulted.

(3) I shall not contradict you if you praise them for their excellence.

(4) But whatever may be our fate, be assured that this declaration will stand.

(5) Conscience remonstrates while we are doing wrong.

(6) Conscience reproaches us after we have done wrong.

(7) In the present exercise, emphasis is the subject to which the pupil's attention is called.

(8) Wherever Hope went he diffused around him gladness and joy.

(9) I knew very well that he could do it.

(10) We acquire knowledge by patient study.

### EXERCISE III.

***Invert and punctuate as above.***

(1) In rural occupations there is nothing mean and debasing.

(2) With such pomp as this is Merry Christmas now ushered in, though only a single star heralded the first Christmas.

(3) Among the Indians it is reckoned uncivil, in travelling, for strangers to enter a village abruptly, without giving notice of their approach.

(4) We ought not to think, while dangers are afar off, that we are secure, unless we try to guard against them.

(5) I had long before repented of my roving course of life, but I could not free my mind from the love of travel.

(6) Early in the morning, before the family was stirring, the old clock, that had stood for fifty years in the farmer's kitchen, without giving its owner any cause of complaint, suddenly stopped.

(7) Between passion and lying there is little difference.

(8) So far as I can judge, the book is well written.

(9) I obtained under his instruction, a knowledge of his art.

(10) The quiet vale of Chamouni lay behind us dotted with romantic hamlets.

### COMPOUND SUBJECT.

***Unite these sentences so as to assert that great praise is due to both.***

The boy's father deserves great praise.

The boy's mother deserves great praise.

***United:—***

The boy's father and mother deserve great praise.

***Deny that great praise is due to both of them.***

The boy's father and mother do not both deserve great praise.

***Assert that great praise is due to one of them, without specifying which.***

Either the boy's father or mother deserves great praise.

***Deny that great praise is due to either of them.***

Neither the boy's father nor mother deserves great praise.

***State that great praise is due to one of them, and not to the other.***

The boy's mother, but not the father, deserves great praise.

---

**EXERCISE I.**

***Write the following sentences in the several ways pointed out in the model, uniting the two sentences in each exercise.***

(1) John recites the lesson well.
James recites the lesson well.

(2) Charles has gone to the country.
William has gone to the country.

(3) Exercise promotes health.
Temperance promotes health.

(4) A gentleman was accommodated with board.
A lady was accommodated with board.

(5) An old man attempts to cross the river.
A boy attempts to cross the river.

(6) Charles has gone to school.
Anna has gone to school.

## ANALYSIS.

In Analysis, it will be found convenient to have a general form, not to be too strictly adhered to, but sufficient to secure a well-arranged statement of the construction of the sentences analyzed.

With this view, the following models, used, with slight modifications, in many of our best schools, are suggested.

### METHOD.

a.

Kind of sentence.

b.

Write sentence in *natural order;* separate enlarged subject from enlarged predicate; underline simple subject and simple predicate.

c.

Clauses: kind, and what they modify.

d.

Phrases: kind, and what they modify.

e.

Part of speech, and construction of words (parsing).

### MODELS.

I.

"A sunbeam played through a hole in the roof of a barn."

a.

Simple, declarative, containing one statement.

b.

A sunbeam | played through a hole in the roof of a barn.

c.

Not any.

d.

"through — hole," adv., mod. *played.*
"in — roof," adj., mod. *hole.*
"of — barn," adj., mod. *roof.*

e.

"sunbeam," noun, subject of *played.*
"played," verb, predicate of *sunbeam.*
"through," prep., connects *played* and *hole.*
"hole," noun, object of *through.*
"in," prep., connects *hole* and *roof.*
"roof," noun, object of *in.*
"of," prep., connects *roof* and *barn.*
"barn," noun, object of *of.*

II.

"Your father will go to the exhibition to-morrow, but he will not take you with him."

a.

Compound declarative, containing two independent statements.

b.

Your father | will go to the exhibition to-morrow,

but

he | will not take you with him.

c.

Not any.

d.

"to — exhibition," adv., mod. *will go.*

"with him," adv., mod. *will take.*

III.

"The landscape that fills the traveller with rapture is regarded with indifference by him who sees it every day from his window."

a.

Complex, declarative, containing one independent statement and two clauses.

b.

The landscape that fills the traveller with rapture | is regarded with indifference by him who sees it every day from his window.

c.

"that | fills the traveller with rapture," adj., mod. *landscape.*

"who | sees it every day from his window," adj., mod. *him.*

d.

"with rapture," adv., mod. *fills.*

"with indifference," adv., mod. *is regarded.*

"by him," adv., mod. *is regarded.*

"from window," adv., mod. *sees.*

## ANALYSIS.

(1) Kind of sentence.
(2) Entire subject of sentence.
(3) Entire predicate of sentence.
(4) Simple subject and its modifiers.
(5) Simple predicate and its modifiers.
(6) Kind of clauses, and what they modify.
(7) Entire subject of clause.
(8) Entire predicate of clause.
(9) Kind of phrases, and what they modify.
(10) Connectives.

## MODELS.

### I.

"A sunbeam played through a hole in the roof of the barn."

(1) This is a simple declarative sentence, containing one statement.

(2) The entire subject is *a sunbeam.*

(3) The entire predicate is *played through a hole in the roof of the barn.*

(4) The simple subject is *sunbeam,* modified by *a.*

(5) The simple predicate is *played,* modified by the adverbial phrase.

(6) There are no clauses.

(7) ——.

(8) ——.

(9) The phrases are, —

*through a hole*, adv., mod. *played*.

*in the roof*, adj., mod. *hole*.

*of the barn*, adj., mod. *roof*.

(10) Connectives are *through*, *in*, and *of*.

II.

"Your father will go to the exhibition to-morrow, but he will not take you with him."

(1) This is a *compound declarative* sentence, containing *two statements*.

(2) The entire subject of first statement is *your father*.

(3) The entire predicate of first statement is, *will go to the exhibition to-morrow*.

(4) Simple subject is *father*, modified by *your*.

(5) Simple predicate is *will go*, modified by the adverbial phrase, and the adverb *to-morrow*.

(6) There are no clauses.

(7) ——.

(8) ——.

(9) The phrase is *to the exhibition*, adv., mod. *will go*.

(10) The connective is *to*.

(1) The second statement is, *he will not take you with him*.

(2) Entire subject is *he*.

(3) Entire predicate is *will not take you with him*.

(4) Simple subject is *he.*

(5) Simple predicate is *will take,* made negative by *not,* and modified by the object *you* and the adverbial phrase.

(6) There are no clauses.

(7) ——.

(8) ——.

(9) The phrase is *with him,* adv., mod. *will take.*

(10) The connectives in entire sentence are, *to, but,* and *with.*

III.

"The landscape which fills the traveller with rapture is regarded with indifference by him who sees it every day, from his window."

(1) This is a *complex declarative* sentence; it contains *one* principal and *two* subordinate statements.

(2) Entire subject of sentence is *the landscape which fills the traveller with rapture.*

(3) Entire predicate is *is regarded,* and the rest of the sentence.

(4) Simple subject is *landscape,* modified by *the* and the adjective clause.

(5) Simple predicate is *is regarded,* modified by the two adverbial phrases.

(6) The clauses are, *which fills the traveller with rapture,* adj., mod. *landscape;* and, *who sees it every day from his window,* adj., mod. *him.*

(7) Entire subject of first clause is *which.*
Entire predicate of first clause is *fills the traveller with rapture.*

(8) Entire subject of second clause is *who.*
Entire predicate of second clause is *sees it every day from his window.*

(9) The phrases are, —
*with rapture*, adv., mod. *fills.*
*with indifference*, adv., mod. *is regarded.*
*by him*, adv., mod. *is regarded.*
*every day*, adv., mod. *sees.*
*from his window*, adv., mod. *sees.*

(10) The connectives are, *which, with, with, by, who,* and *from.*

When pupils have become familiar with the rules of syntax, and their application in constructions not beyond their capacity, it seems a waste of time to go through with the usual forms of *parsing*, which soon becomes a formal and monotonous exercise, awakening little thought. Questions like those in the following example will, it is believed, create an interest, and familiarize pupils with grammatical principles.

These questions are given, not to be followed implicitly, but as suggestions to be used at the discretion of teachers.

**EXAMPLE.**

"The tall oaks which grow in the forest wave their branches gracefully in the cold March winds."

(1) Tell the use of the following words in the sentence above: *tall, oaks, which, grow, wave, branches, gracefully, cold, March, winds.*

(2) Tell the use of the clause, *which grow in the forest.*

(3) Tell the use of the phrases, *in the forest,* and *in the cold March winds.*

(4) Write all the forms of the word *tall,* and tell when each should be used.

(5) Write all the forms of *oaks,* and tell when each should be used.

(6) What time is expressed by the word *grow?*

(7) What time would be expressed if it were *grew?*

(8) If the word *have* should be used before it, what form of the verb would it take?

(9) What other words besides *have* would require the same form?

(10) Write all the forms of *wave,* and give an example of each form in a sentence.

(11) How could the word *wave* be made to express future time?

(12) What is the use of the words *shall* and *will* when they are prefixed to verbs?

(13) What are *auxiliaries?*

# APPENDIX.

## MODE.

THE potential mode might, perhaps, be more properly called another form of the indicative.

Both modes are used to declare, and to ask a question.

Both may be used either in an independent statement, or in a clause.

Both may be used subjunctively, to express a condition.

In fact, they are necessarily used for this purpose in all but the past tense.

There seems, then, to be no way of defining either the indicative or the potential mode, so as to exclude the other, except by the *form*.

*I can do it*, and *I am able to do it*, mean the same thing. *He can go if he wishes*, and *he will go if he can*. These expressions show that both modes may be used in declarative statements and in expressing conditions.

On the other hand, the imperative has the *form* of the indicative, but is used for a different purpose.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Grimm says, that "while *I am* means *I am, beó* means *I shall be.* The Anglo-Saxon *beó* (be) has not a present, but a future sense. In the older languages, it is only where the form *am* is not found, that *be* has the power of a present form." (See Fowler's Eng. Gram., p. 268.)

It seems by this, that the present practice of confining the forms *If I be,* and *If it rain,* to their use only when reference is had to future time, is consistent with original usage.

## TENSE.

Although we define tense as denoting distinctions of time, it is only in a very general sense that the time of an action is expressed by the verb. It is more commonly expressed by a phrase or an adverb.

In fact, the present and the future of the indicative may be used in expressing present or future time; as, *The boys go back next Saturday week. I shall or will go now. I shall or will go to-morrow.*

The potential present and past tenses may be used in expressing present or future time; as, *He may go now,* or *He may go to-morrow. He could go now if he wished. He could go to-morrow if it were not for an engagement.*

The past form of the potential is used in expressing past time, only in clauses when it follows a past tense of the verb in the principal statement; as, *I feared that he would overtake me.*

### SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

*May, shall, will,* are regularly used in clauses, after the present and future tenses in the independent statement; and *might, could, would, should,* after the past tenses; as,

I come
I have come[1]
I shall come
I will come
} that I may see for myself.

I came
I had come
} that I might see for myself.

---

Verbs of asking, teaching, and a few others, have two direct objects, — one of the *person,* the other of the *thing;* as, *I taught him grammar.*

That there are two direct objects, is shown by the fact that they admit of two regular *passives;* as, *He was taught grammar by me;* and, *Grammar was taught him by me. I asked him this question. This question was asked him by me. He was asked this question by me.*

The construction is the same after certain verbs, when one of the objects is an infinitive, or verbal noun; as, *I heard him step. I saw him run.* Two passives may be formed thus: *His stepping was heard by me. He was heard*

[1] The past form is sometimes used after the present perfect, since it represents a past action, complete at the present time; as, *I may have told you, that you might be on your guard.*

*to step by me. He was seen to run by me. His running was seen by me.*

*Need* and *dare*, before another verb in a negative sentence, do not take the inflection *s* in the third person singular of the present indicative; as, *It need scarcely be said. All that need be said.* — NEWMAN. But if *to* is expressed with the second verb, the *s* is added; as, It *needs* to be said. He *dares* to tell the truth.

*Needs* is sometimes an adverb (meaning *necessarily*); as, *He must needs go through Samaria.*

---

*Methinks* is formed by the impersonal verb *think*, meaning *seem*, and the dative *me;* and is literally rendered, *it seems to me.*

---

*Had as lief, had better, had best, had like, had as good,* and *had rather*, are sometimes criticised; but they are idioms which have been in use from early times, and are abundantly supported by the best authorities. *Would as lief* and *would rather* are also used by good writers.

"I *had rather* be a dog, and bay the moon."— SHAKSPEARE.

"I *had rather* be a doorkeeper," etc. — Ps. lxxxiv. 10.

"I *had much rather* be myself the slave,
And wear the bonds, than fasten them on him." — COWPER.

"I *had as lief* not be, as live to be
In awe of such a thing as I myself." — SHAKSPEARE.

"Some things the state *had better* leave alone; others it *had better* not." — M. ARNOLD.

"But if I like the gay equipage so well as to go out of my road, I *had better* have gone afoot." — R. W. EMERSON.

"Is it true that Johnson *had better* have gone on producing more Irenes, instead of writing Lives of the Poets?"

M. ARNOLD.

---

In Anglo-Saxon the simple infinitive was not preceded by the preposition *to*.

It was only the dative case that was preceded by *to*.

Some time in the latter part of the twelfth century, *to* came into use before the simple infinitive; and the two infinitives — the dative, or gerundial, and the simple form — became confounded.

But the gerund may now be distinguished from the simple infinitive, by the fact that it generally expresses purpose or intention. It is equivalent to *for* with an infinitive in *ing*: as, A house *to let* = *for letting*; Ready *to sail* = *for sailing*; he is the man *to do it* = *for doing* it.

Earle says, "That which we call the English infinitive verb, such as *to live*, *to die*, is quite a modern thing, and is characteristic of English as opposed to Saxon. It first existed as a phrasal adverb, and was a method of attaching one verb to another in an adverbial manner. In process of time it detached itself, and assumed an independent position."

Bain says in his "Higher English Grammar" (p. 156), "The infinitive acts the part of a noun-phrase when preceded, as it usually is, by the preposition *to;* as, *He is a fool to throw away such a chance;* and the manner or circumstance or explanation of his being so is, *for the throwing away of such a chance.*" This phrase, like others formed by a noun and preposition, may perform the office of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

This justifies what has been treated as an anomalous use of the infinitive (or verbal noun) in such sentences as, *He was ready to go; He was wise enough to remain silent.*

The construction therefore is not anomalous, since a phrase consisting of a preposition and a noun may perform the office of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

---

The English verb has no imperfect passive participle. To supply this want, the imperfect active is often used in a passive sense: as, *The house is building; The debt is owing; The drums are beating.*

The evil of employing the same form in two meanings has given rise to the expressions, *The house is being built. The drums are being beaten.*

These forms seem cumbrous and stiff, but they are now used by many good writers. (See Bain, p. 116.)

Active forms with passive significations are found in infinitives: as, *A house to let; good to eat; books to sell; he is to blame.* The infinitive is here a gerund.

It is common to call *as* a relative pronoun in the expressions, *such as, as many as.*

There seems, however, to be merely an ellipsis of the relative and its antecedent; as, *I gave him such articles as were in my possession.* That is, *I gave him such articles as* [*those are which*] *were in my possession. As many as* [*those were who*] *received him,* etc.

When the ellipsis is supplied, we see that *as* is a conjunction.

The same ellipsis exists after *than* in the following sentence: I paid him more money *than* was due. That is, I paid him more money than [the money that] was due.

---

Such expressions as *two first, three last,* are often criticised, but are fully sanctioned by good usage; as,

"My two last letters." — ADDISON.

"The two first lines." — BLAIR.

"At the two last schools." — JOHNSON.

"The three first of his longer poems." — SOUTHEY.

Arnold says, "Persons write *first three* to prevent the seeming absurdity of implying that more than one thing can be first; but it is equally absurd to talk about the *first three* when, as often happens, there is no second three."

Besides, if the criticism is just, *first* and *last,* and indeed all superlatives can be used only with singular nouns; and it is equally improper to speak of the *first years* of a lawyer's practice, the *first essays* of a writer, the *two wisest* men, or

the *two tallest* men. For, if we insist that there can be but one first, it is clear there can be but one wisest man, one tallest man, etc.

But we do not commonly speak of the wisest two men, the tallest two men.

The general rule seems to be, that the word to which we wish to call special attention is placed first.

Both forms are proper, and are used by the best writers.

---

"The occurrence of *the* with a comparative — as, *the more, the better* — is now shown by grammarians not to afford an example of the definite article. *The* in such combinations, although spelt like the article, is in reality another word; [meaning] *by how much*, the more, *by so much*, the better." — BAIN'S *Higher English Grammar*, p. 35.

---

*What with*, in such sentences as, *What with the cold weather and feeble health, I have been confined to the house*, is an idiom, not to be analyzed, but used as an equivalent of the adverb *partly*.

---

Bain says, "The rule (that the comparative must be used when two things are compared) is not strictly adhered to. Writers and speakers continually use the superlative in comparing two things: as, *the least of the two; the best of the two*. Like other dual forms, the comparative degree is superfluous, and perspicuity would be equally well served by

using the same form of comparison for two, or for more than two." One having but two children speaks of his oldest and youngest child.

Campbell, in "The Philosophy of Rhetoric," says, in reference to the expression, *He is the taller man of the two*, "Only in such, the comparative has the definite article *the* prefixed to it, and it is construed precisely as the superlative; nay, both degrees are in such cases used indiscriminately. We say rightly, This is the *weaker* of the two, or the *weakest* of the two."

---

There is sometimes a question whether to use an adjective or an adverb after certain verbs.

The principle seems to be, that when the limiting word expresses a *quality* or *state* of the subject or the object, rather than the *manner* of the action, an adjective is proper.

This construction takes place with the verbs, *be*, *look*, *feel*, *taste*, *smell*, *seem*, *appear*, etc.: as, The berry tastes *sour*. The flower smells *sweet*. Velvet feels *smooth*. The sentence sounds *awkward* and *harsh*. The man felt *bad* about it. The boy felt *mean*. The letter came *safe*. These persons ranked *high* among the nobility. He went to his work as *gay* as a lark.

"The blow fell *heavy* on the family." — MACAULAY.
"The stream ran *deep* and *strong*." "
"The lads came back *safe*." "
"While he lived, his power stood *firm*." "

### "SHALL" AND "WILL."

*Shall* originally meant obligation, — a sense still retained in its past tense *should.*

Chaucer uses the expression, "The faith I *shall* to God" (meaning *owe to God*).

*Will,* on the other hand, means *intention.*

In the first person, except in making a promise, we use *shall,* admitting our determination to be a duty.

In the second and third persons, we use *will* as a presumption that the act is voluntary.

*Shall* used in the second and third persons expresses the determination of the speaker, and is equivalent to a command. It is the form of imposing legal obligations; as, *Thou shalt not steal.*

---

Is it proper to end a sentence with a preposition?

Dr. Campbell, in the "Philosophy of Rhetoric," says, "In English the preposition is often placed not only after the noun, but at a considerable distance from it, as in the following example: *The infirmary was, indeed, never so full as on this day, which I was at some loss to account for.*"

The practice of throwing the preposition to the end of the sentence (especially when used with the restrictive relative *that*) is of Teutonic origin, and, as might be expected, an old English idiom.

In the latter part of the seventeenth and the first part of the eighteenth century, it was regarded as inelegant. Since

that time, there has been a tendency to restore the English idiom, as less cumbersome and more spirited. Bain, in his "Higher English Grammar," gives the preference to such expressions as, *that I was witness of*, to *of which I was a witness*. A long list of quotations from Elizabethan writers, given by Bain, will show the usage at the time. *That flesh is heir to*, would hardly be improved by the expression *to which flesh is heir*. "Wretched vagabonds, eager only to find some obscure retreat to die in." — PRESCOTT. "A force of cultivated opinion for him to appeal to." — MATTHEW ARNOLD. This is much more vivid and idiomatic than *to which he can appeal.*

This construction is especially adapted to colloquial discourse, and an idiomatic style.

### THE PLACE OF THE ADVERB.

The place of an adverb in the arrangement of a sentence, requires much care. No definite rule can be given of universal application. But when a verb has a direct object, the adverb is usually placed after it; as, *He treated them handsomely.* It is commonly placed after an intransitive verb; as, *She dances well.*

An adverb limiting an adjective or another adverb, is placed before the word limited; as, *a very good man.* When the verb is made up of an auxiliary and a participle, the adverb is commonly placed between the two; as, *I have gently hinted my intentions.* The preposition *to* should not be separated from the infinitive by an adverb.

## ONLY AND EVEN.

The words *only* and *even* may be made to express different meanings, according to their position; as, *He only spoke to call my attention.* In this sentence, "only" limits "spoke," indicating that he did nothing else; but in the sentence, "He spoke only to call my attention," or, "to call my attention only," "only" limits the adverbial phrase, indicating that this was his only purpose in speaking.

So the two sentences, "William even refused to recite," and "Even William refused to recite," mean different things; "even" having the force, in the former, of an adverb, and the latter of an adjective.

## GRAMMATICAL EQUIVALENTS.

"A grammatical form is equivalent to another grammatical form when the first means the same, or nearly the same, as the second. What is called command of language is little else than a practical acquaintance with grammatical equivalents." — *English Grammar*, by W. C. Fowler.

The most common equivalents are words, phrases, and clauses: thus, *a prudent man* is equivalent to *a man of prudence*, or *a man who is prudent.*

He reported the death of the king = He reported that the king was dead.

The services being finished, the people dispersed = When the services were finished, the people dispersed.

**Note.** — The progressive form of a verb is not always interchangeable with the common form; as, *The boys play in the yard* (an habitual act). *The boys are playing in the yard* (an act now taking place).

# SUPPLEMENTARY EXERCISES

IN

# VERBAL FORMS.

## PARTS OF SPEECH.

**MODEL.**

"He who plants an oak looks forward to future ages, and plants for posterity." — W. IRVING.

| ART. | NOUN. | VERB. | ADJ. | ADV. | P. PRO. | R. PRO. | PREP. | CONJ. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| an | oak | plants | future | forward | He | who | to | and |
| | ages | looks | | | | | for | |
| | posterity | plants | | | | | | |

***Select the several parts of speech in the following sentences, and arrange them in columns, as in the model.***

**EXERCISE.**

(1) "A good voice has a charm in speech as in song. Many people have no ear for music, but every one has an ear for skilful reading." — EMERSON.

(2) "Whatever is begun in anger ends in shame."

(3) "The worst wheel of the cart makes the most noise."

(4) "If pride leads the van, beggary brings up the rear."

(5) "A false friend and a shadow attend only while the sun shines." — DR. FRANKLIN.

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## POSSESSIVE CASE.

***Change the form of these sentences, putting the italicized words in the possessive case.***

(1) This is the steed of the *hero.*
(2) These are the swords of *heroes.*
(3) What is the sphere of duty for *woman?*
(4) This is the house of my *father.*
(5) The uncle of the *boy* paid his tuition.
(6) The fathers of the *boys* reproved them.
(7) Does this cane belong to the *gentleman?*
(8) Do these coats belong to the *gentlemen?*
(9) The hoofs of *horses* are whole.
(10) The hoof of a *cow* is cloven.

## PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

***In each sentence, supply the personal pronoun, and tell what person, number, and case it is.***

(1) The girl must study —— lesson.
(2) The girls must study —— lessons.
(3) The man acquired —— property by industry.
(4) The lady was much admired by —— friends.
(5) —— am pleased with —— situation.
(6) Teach —— to fix —— hopes on high.
(7) In building a house —— frame should be strong.
(8) Boats are steered by —— rudders.
(9) You lost —— books and —— brother found ——

(10) "—— art, O God, the life and light
Of all this wondrous world —— see;
—— smile by day, —— gloom by night,
Are but reflections caught from ——." — MOORE.

## COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

***In each sentence, supply the proper compound personal pronoun, and tell what person and number it is.***

(1) The gentleman —— was there, and cautioned the boys not to injure ——.

(2) The girl amuses —— with her dolls.

(3) The boy amuses —— with his cart.

(4) The children amuse —— with playthings.

(5) Thou forget'st ——.

(6) The carriage —— was too heavy for one horse.

(7) You wrong —— to write in such a case.

(8) I —— saw it.

(9) You —— saw it.

(10) He —— saw it.

(11) They —— saw it.

## RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

***Supply the proper relative pronoun in each of the following sentences, and tell what noun or pronoun is its antecedent.***

(1) The boy —— is faithful will meet the approval of his teacher.

(2) Shakspeare wrote many plays —— are acted on the stage.

(3) The boy to —— I spoke is my friend.

(4) The girl —— I spoke to is my sister.

(5) Pupils —— are obedient gain the good-will of their teacher.

(6) The books of —— I spoke are interesting.

(7) The trees —— leaves had turned were beautiful.

(8) "When I was a young fellow, I used to spend most

(9) of my vacations with an uncle —— lived in a

(10) beautiful part of Wales, and —— house was only

(11) a mile or two from the coast, —— was very precipitous."

## COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

***Supply the compound relative in each of the following sentences.***

(1) —— hinders our progress should be overcome.

(2) They know not —— they do.

(3) —— way he turned, he met with difficulty.

(4) —— will, let him come.

(5) —— wishes to excel must work hard.

(6) We should carefully avoid —— gives pain to others.

(7) —— desires riches must be diligent.

(8) Take —— you choose.

(9) —— made the remark misrepresented the case.

(10) In —— situation you are, do your duty.

**Note.** — "Whosoever" is declined like "who," thus:

| *Nominative.* | *Possessive.* | *Objective.* |
|---|---|---|
| whosoever. | whosesoever. | whomsoever. |

## INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

### MODEL.

I heard the bird *sing* = simple infinitive.

I tried *to catch* the bird = infinitive phrase.

*Singing* is a healthful exercise = infinitive in *ing*.

The pupil while *singing* looked at the notes = imperfect participle.

***Select the simple infinitives, the infinitive phrases, the infinitives in* ing, *and the imperfect participles, in the following sentences.***

### EXERCISE.

(1) "Whether we look, or whether we listen,

(2) We hear life murmur, or see it glisten." — LOWELL.

(3) "To be, or not to be, that is the question."
SHAKSPEARE.

(4) "Cromwell, I charge thee fling away ambition."
SHAKSPEARE.

(5) The man was indicted for stealing.

(6) The best method of acquiring facility of expression is to practise writing under judicious criticism.

(7) Reading good authors, and examining critically the structure of sentences and the choice of words, will be useful in forming a good style.

(8) A boy attending school should go for the purpose of learning.

(9) The boy, after reciting his lesson perfectly, was permitted to play.

(10) To an American visiting Europe, the long voyage he has to make is an excellent preparative.

## REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS.

### MODEL.

"It appears to me that Poor Richard's Almanac did more than any thing else toward making him familiarly known to the public." — HAWTHORNE.

| *Regular.* | | | *Irregular.* | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| appears. | | | do. | | |
| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Per. Part.* | *Present.* | *Past.* | *Perfect Part.* |
| appear. | appeared. | appeared. | do. | did. | done. |
| | | | make. | made. | made. |
| | | | know. | knew. | known. |

***Arrange the principal parts of the regular and the irregular verbs, and words derived from verbs, in separate columns.***

### EXERCISE.

(1) The reason that the deaf and dumb cannot *speak* is that they are unable to *hear*.

(2) Do not *speak* a word, for fear some one will *hear* you.

(3) "Venerable men! you have *come* down to us from a former generation." — WEBSTER.

(4) "Heaven has bounteously *lengthened* out your lives, that you might *behold* this joyous day." — WEBSTER.

(6) "You *are* where you *stood* fifty years ago." — WEBSTER.

## ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE.

John speaks the French language.

The French language is spoken by John.

### EXERCISE I.

***Change the verbs in the following sentences to the passive voice.***

(1) My brother read the book yesterday.

(2) The children gathered flowers in the garden.

(3) My father plants trees for fruit and shade.

(4) The diligent make great improvement.

(5) The general sent despatches by every mail.

### EXERCISE II.

***Change the verbs to the active voice.***

(1) Health is promoted by exercise and temperance.

(2) The highest enjoyment is conferred by benevolence.

(3) Mary's friends are delighted by her prudence.

(4) A report of the battle was made by the general.

(5) The man's property was acquired by industry.

***Change the sentences in Exercises I. and II. to the interrogative form.***

**Note.** — An intransitive verb, combined with a preposition, often has the force of a transitive verb, and may be changed to the passive voice; as,

I *arrived at* this opinion. This opinion *was arrived at* by me.

He *listened to* the music. The music *was listened to* by him.

We often *meet with* difficulties. Difficulties *are* often *met with* by us.

The officer *attended to* the business. The business *was attended to* by the officer.

In such cases, the combination should be regarded as a compound word.

**Note.** — A few intransitive verbs are occasionally used in the passive form, but retain the active sense; as,

"He was come home." — IRVING.

"The melancholy days are come." — BRYANT.

"But he is risen, a later star of dawn." — WORDSWORTH.

## EXERCISE ON THE VERB "LIE."

### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Imperfect Participle.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| lie. | lay. | lying. | lain. |

### MODEL.

*Present Ind.* I lie, or am lying, on the lounge now.

*Past Ind.* I lay, or was lying, on the lounge yesterday.

*Present Per. Ind.* I have lain, or have been lying, on the lounge all day.

*Past Per. Ind.* I had lain, or had been lying, on the lounge an hour before you came.

*Future Ind.* I shall lie, or shall be lying, on the lounge, after dinner.

*Future Per. Ind.* I shall have lain, or shall have been lying, on the lounge when you come.

### EXERCISE.

***Fill the blanks with the proper form of the verb* lie.**

(1) The book —— or is —— on the table now.

(2) The book —— or was —— on the table yesterday.

(3) The book has —— or has been —— on the table all day.

(4) The book had —— or had been —— on the table a long time.

(5) The book will —— or will be —— on the table to-morrow.

(6) The book will have —— or will have been —— on the table an hour.

(7) The book may —— or may be —— on the table.

(8) The book might —— or might be —— on the table.

(9) The book may have —— or may have been —— on the table.

(10) The book might have —— or might have been —— on the table.

## EXERCISE ON THE VERB "LAY."

### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Imperfect Participle.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| lay. | laid. | laying. | laid. |

### MODEL.

*Present Ind.* I lay the paper on the table.
*Past Ind.* I laid the paper on the table.
*Present Per. Ind.* I have laid the paper on the table.
*Past Per. Ind.* I had laid the paper on the table.
*Future Ind.* I shall lay the paper on the table.
*Future Per. Ind.* I shall have laid the paper on the table.

### EXERCISE.

***Fill the blanks with the proper form of the verb* lay.**

(1) Birds —— eggs.

(2) The boy —— his book on the desk.

(3) Please to —— the book on the table.

(4) The bird has —— four eggs.
(5) I had —— my knife away, and could not find it.
(6) I shall —— my clothes on the chair.
(7) He will have —— his playthings away.
(8) You may —— away your books.
(9) You could —— your hat on mine.
(10) You may have —— your hat on the table.
(11) You should have —— it where it belongs.

## EXERCISE ON THE VERB "SIT."

### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Imperfect Participle.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| sit. | sat. | sitting. | sat. |

### MODEL.

*Present Ind.* I sit, or am sitting.
*Past Ind.* I sat, or was sitting.
*Present Per. Ind.* I have sat, or have been sitting.
*Past Per. Ind.* I had sat, or had been sitting.
*Future Ind.* I shall sit, or shall be sitting.
*Future Per. Ind.* I shall have sat, or shall have been sitting.

### EXERCISE.

***Fill the blanks with the proper form of the verb* sit.**

(1) He —— or is —— at table.
(2) We —— or were —— at table.
(3) We have —— or have been —— at table.
(4) We had —— or had been —— at table.
(5) We shall —— or shall be —— at table.

(6) We shall have —— or shall have been —— at table.

(7) We may —— or may be —— at table.

(8) We may have —— or may have been —— at table.

(9) We might —— or might be —— at table.

(10) We might have —— or might have been —— at table.

## EXERCISE ON THE VERB "SET."

### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| *Present.* | *Past.* | *Imperfect Participle.* | *Perfect Participle.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| set. | set. | setting. | set. |

### MODEL.

*Present Ind.* The maid sets, or is setting, the table.

*Past Ind.* The maid set, or was setting, the plates on the table.

*Present Per. Ind.* I have set, or have been setting, my chair to the table.

*Past Per. Ind.* I had set, or had been setting, my room in order.

*Future Ind.* I shall set, or shall be setting, my room in order.

*Future Per. Ind.* I shall have set, or shall have been setting, my room in order.

### EXERCISE.

***Fill the blanks with the proper form of the verb* set.**

(1) I —— or am —— a trap.

(2) I —— or was —— a trap yesterday.

(3) I have —— or have been —— a trap.

(4) I had —— or had been —— a trap.

(6) The teacher will —— or will be —— a lesson.

(7) The teacher will have —— or will have been —— a lesson.

**Note.** — For additional practice in the higher classes, the teacher may take selections from the reading-book or elsewhere, to be analyzed with reference to the thought as well as the form of expression; such attention as seems desirable being called to points of syntax and verbal forms.

As intimated on a previous page, parsing every word, and repeating rules of syntax for the hundredth time, soon become formal and monotonous, awakening little thought.

**MODEL.**

"To him who in the love of Nature holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language: for his gayer hours
She has a voice of gladness; and she glides
Into his darker musings, with a mild
And gentle sympathy that steals away
Their sharpness ere he is aware." — BRYANT.

**QUESTIONS.**

(1) What is the first statement in this sentence?

*Ans.* That Nature speaks a various language.

(2) In what respects is it said to be various?

*Ans.* She has a voice of gladness for one's gayer hours, and she glides into his darker musings with a mild and gentle sympathy.

(3) How many independent statements in the sentence?

*Ans.* Three.

(4) What kind of sentence?

*Ans.* Compound.

(5) What statements are complex?

*Ans.* The first and last.

(6) How many, and what kind of, clauses in the sentence?

*Ans.* Three: who holds . . . forms, *adj.;* that steals . . . sharpness, *adj.;* ere he is aware, *adv.*

(7) What does each clause limit, and how connected?

This may be continued according to the advancement of the pupils, thus: —

(8) Why does *Nature* begin with a capital?

(9) What do *she* and *her* refer to?

(10) To whom does Nature speak?

(11) Is *speak* use transitively or intransitively?

(12) Is *holds* regular or irregular?

(13) What does *s* in *holds* show?

(14) What two offices does *who* perform?

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